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Q. HORATII FLACCI E P I S T O L A E

A D

PISONES,

ET

AUGUSTUM:

WITH AN ENGLISH

COMMENTARY AND NOTES:

TO WHICH ARE ADDED

CRITICAL DISSERTATIONS.

BY THE

REVEREND MR. HURD.

THE FIFTH EDITION,

CORRECTED AND ENLARGED.

VOL. II.

PRINTED BY W. BOWYER AND J. NICHOLS:
FOR T. CADELL, IN THE STRAND; AND
J. WOODYER, AT CAMBRIDGE,
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TO THE REVEREND

MR. WARBURTON.

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the receipt of street writers, more elpecultive mores, of postey and loven-

REVEREND SIR,

The following Essay on the Epistle to Augustus; which, whatever other merit it may want, is secure of this, that it hath been planned upon the best model. For I know not what should hinder me from declaring to you in this public manner, that it was the early pleasure I received from what you had written of this sort, which first engaged me in the province of criticism. And, if I have taken upon

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me to illustrate another of the finest pieces of antiquity after the fame method, it is because I find myself encouraged to do so by higher considerations, than even the Authority of your example.

CRITICISM, confidered in its antient and noblest office of doing justice to the merits of great writers, more especially in works of poetry and invention, demands, to its perfect execution, these two qualities: a philosophic spirit, capable of penetrating the fundamental reasons of excellence in every different species of composition; and a strong imagination, the parent of what we call true tafte, enabling the critic to feel the full force of his author's excellence himself, and to impress a lively sense of it upon others. Each of these abilities is necessary. For by means of philosophy, criticism, which were otherwise a vague and superficial thing, acquires

acquires the foundness and solidity of science. And from the power of fancy, it derives that light and energy and spirit, which are wanting to provoke the public emulation and carry the general conclusions of reason into practice.

Of these talents (to regard them in their separate state) that of a strong imagination, as being the commoner of the two, one would naturally suppose should be the first to exert itself in the fervice of criticism. And thus it seems. in fact, to have happened. For there were very early in Greece a fort of men, who, under the name of RHAPSO-DISTS, made it their bufinefs to illustrate the beauties of their favourite writers. Though their art, indeed, was very simple; for it consisted only in acting the finest passages of their works, and in repeating them, with a rapturous kind of vehemence, to an ecstatie .

ecstatic auditory. Whence it appears, that criticism, as being yet in its infancy, was wholly turned to admiration; a passion which true judgment as little indulges in the schools of Art, as found philosophy, in those of Nature. Accordingly these enraptured declaimers, though they travelled down to the politer ages, could not subfift in them. The fine ridicule of Plato, in one of his Dialogues [a], and the growing tafte for just thinking, seem perfectly to have discredited this folly. And it was prefently feen and acknowledged even by the Rhapfodist himself, that, how divinely foever he might feel himfelf affected by the magnetic virtue of the muse, yet, as he could give no intelligible account of its fubtle operations, he was affuredly no Artift; ΘΕΙΟΝ είναι ή μη ΤΕΧΝΙΚΟΝ επαινέto their pathages of tour

works, and in ... indir [6] them, with a

Disting

From this time they, who took upon themselves the office of commenting and recommending the great writers of Greece, discharged it in a very different manner. Their refearches grew fevere, inquisitive, and rational. And no wonder; for the person, who now took the lead in these studies, and set the fashion of them, was a philosopher, and, which was happy for the advancement of this art, the justest philosopher of antiquity. Hence scientific or speculative criticism attained to perfection, at once; and appeared in all that feverity of reason and accuracy of method, which Ariftotle himfelf could beffow upon it.

But now this might almost seem as violent an extreme as the other. For though to understand be better than to admire, yet the generality of readers cannot, or will not, understand, where there is nothing for them to admire.

a 4

viii DEDICATION.

So that reason, for her own sake, is obliged to borrow something of the dress, and to mimie the airs, of saney: And Aristotle's reason was too proud to submit to this management.

Hence, the critical plan, which the Stagyrite had formed with fuch rigour of science, however it might satisfy the curious speculatist, wanted to be relieved and fet off to the common eye by the heightenings of eloquence. This, I observed, was the easier task of the two; and yet it was very long before it was successfully attempted. Amongst other reasons of this delay, the principal, as you observe, might be the fall of the public freedom of Greece, which foon after followed. For then, instead of the free and manly efforts of genius, which alone could accomplish fuch a reformation, the trifling spirit of the times declined into mere verbal amusements. "Whence, as you fay, fo " great

"great a cloud of scholiasts and gram"marians so soon overspread the
"learning of Greece, when once that
"famous community had lost its
"liberty [b]."

And what Greece was thus unable, of a long time, to furnish, we shall in vain feek in another great community, which foon after flourished in all liberal studies. The genius of Rome was bold and elevated enough for this talk. But Criticism of any kind was little cultivated, never professed as an art, by this people. The specimens we have of their ability in this way (of which the most elegant, beyond dispute, are the two epistles to Augustus and the Pisos) are slight occafional attempts; made in the negligence of common fense, and adapted to the peculiar exigencies of their own tafte and learning: and not by any

means

[[]b] Pope's Works, vol. v. p. 244. 800.

means the regular productions of art, professedly bending itself to this work, and ambitious to give the last finishing to the critical system.

For so great an effort as this, we are to look back to the confines of Greece. And there at length, and even from beneath the depression of flavery (but with a spirit that might have done honour to its age of greatest liberty), a CRITIC arose, singularly qualified for fo generous an undertaking. His profession, which was that of a rhetorical fopbift, required him to be fully inftructed in the graces and embellishments of eloquence; and these, the vigour of his genius enabled him to comprehend in their utmost force and beauty. a word, Longinus was the person, whom, of all the critics of antiquity, nature feems to have formed with the proper talents to give the last honour

log ashell Aspell (6)

to his profession, and penetrate the very

foul of fine writing.

Yet fo bounded is human wit, and with fuch difficulty is human art compleated, that even here the advantage, which had been fo fortunately gained on the one hand, was, in great meafure, loft and forfeited on the other. He had foftened indeed the feverity of Aristotle's plan; but, in doing this, had gone back again too far into the manner of the admiring Rhapfodift. In fhort, with the brightest views of nature and true beauty, which the finest imagination could afford to the best critic, he now wanted, in a good degree, that precision, and depth of thought, which had fo eminently diftinguished his predecessor. For, as Plotinus long ago observed of him, though he had approved himself a master of polite literature, he was no Philosopher; ΦΙΛΟΛΟΓΟΣ ΜΕΝ, ΦΙ-ΛΟΣΟΦΟΣ ΔΕ ΟΥΔΑΜΩΣ.

Thus

Thus the art had been shifting reciprocally into two extremes. And in one or other of these extremes, it was likely to continue. For the fame and eminent ability of their great founders had made them confidered as models; in their different ways, of perfect criticism. Only it was easy to foresee which of them the humour of succeeding times would be most disposed to emulate. The catching enthusiasm and picturesque fancy of the one would be fure to prevail over the coolness and austerity of the other. Accordingly in the last and present century, when now the diligence of learned men had, by restoring the purity, opened an easy way to the study, of the old classics, a numberless tribe of commentators have attempted, after the manner of Longinus, to flourish on the excellencies of their composition. And some of them, indeed, fucceeded fo well in this method.

DEDICATION. xiii

thod, that one is not to wonder it foon became the popular and only authorized form of what was reputed just Criticism. Yet, as nothing but fuperior genius could make it tolerable even in the best of these, it was to be expected (what experience hath now fully shewn), that it would at length, and in ordinary hands, degenerate into the most unmeaning, frivolous, and difgustful jargon, that ever discredited polite letters.

This, Sir, was the state in which you received modern Criticism: a state, which could only shew you, that, of the two models, antiquity had surnished to our use, we had learned, by an awkward imitation of it, to abuse the worst. But it did not content your zeal for the service of letters barely to remedy this abuse. It was not enough, in your enlarged view of things, to restore either of these models to its an-

xiv DEDICATION.

tient splendour. They were both to be revived; or rather a new original plan of criticism was to be struck out, which should unite the virtues of each of them. The experiment was made on the Two greatest of our own poets; and, by reflecting all the lights of the imagination on the feverest reason, every thing was effected, which the warmest admirer of antient art could promife to himself from such an union. But you went farther. By joining to these powers a perfect insight into human nature, and fo ennobling the exercife of literary, by the addition of the justest moral, censure, you have now, at length, advanced CRITICISM to its full glory.

Not but, considering the inveterate foible of mankind, which the poet so justly satirizes in the following work, I mean that, which disposes them to malign and depreciate all the efforts of wit and virtue,

—nisi

- nisi quae terris semota suisque Temporibus defuncta videt -

Considering, I say, this temper of mankind, you may fooner, perhaps, expect the censures of the dull and envious of all denominations, than the . candid applause of the public, even for this fervice.

I apprehend this confequence the rather, because criticism, though it be the last fruit of literary experience, is more exposed to the cavils of ignorance and vanity, than, perhaps, any other species of learned application; all men being forward to judge, and few men giving themselves leave to doubt of their being able to judge, of the merits of well-known and popular writers.

Nor is this all: When writers of a certain rank condescend to this work of criticism, the innovation excites a

very

xvi DEDICATION.

very natural ferment in the men of the profession.

Their JEALOUSY is alarmed, as if there was a defign to strip them of the only honour they can reasonably pretend to, that of sitting in judgment on the inventions of their betters. But to JUDGE, as well as to INVENT, is thought a violent encroachment in the republic of Letters; not unlike the ambition of the Roman emperors, who would be consuls, and censors too, that is, would have the privilege of excluding from the senate, as well as of presiding in it.

But if jealousy were out of the case, their MALIGNITY would be much inflamed by this intrusion. For who can bear to see his own weak endeavours, in any art, disgraced by a consummate model?

Besides, to say the truth, the conceptions of such writers, as I before spoke fpoke of, lie so remote from vulgar apprehension, that, without either jealousy or malignity, DULLNESS itself will be sure to create them many peevish detractors. For an ordinary critic can scarce help sinding fault with what he does not understand, or being angry where he has no ideas.

On all these accounts, it may possibly happen, as I said, that your critical labours will draw upon you much popular resentment and invective.

But if such should be the present effect of your endeavours to cultivate and complete this elegant part of literature; you, who know the temper of the learned world, and, by your eminent merits, have so oft provoked its injustice, will not be disturbed or surprized at it: much less should it discourage those who Vol. II.

xviii DEDICATION.

are disposed to do you more right, from celebrating, and, as they find themselves able, from copying your example;

For use will father what's begot by sense, as well in this, as in other instances.

You see, Sir, what there is of encomium in the turn of this Letter. was intended not fo much for your fake, as my own. Had my purpose been any other, I must have chosen very ill among the various parts of your character to take this for the fubject of an address to you. For, after all I have faid and think of your critical abilities, it might feem almost as strange in a panegyrist on Mr. Warburton to tell of his admirable criticisms on Pope and SHAKE-SPEARE, as it would be in him, who should defign an encomium on Socrates, to infift on his excellent feulpture

DEDICATION. xix ture of MERCURY and the GRACES. Yet there is a time, when it may be allowed to lay a stress on the amusements of such men. It is, when an adventurer in either art would do an honour to his profession.

I am,

with the truest esteem,

Reverend Sir,

Your most obedient

and most bumble servant,

CAMBRIDGE, March 29, 1753.

R. HURD.

ture of Mencury and the or lost.
Yet there is a time, when it may be allowed to lay a firels on the amolements of fuch men. It is, when an advanturer la either we would do an honour to his profession.

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soith the truck gliem,

Reversed Sir,

Your west obedient

and mod dumble ferount,

CAMBRIDGE, TO SERVE OF STREET OF STREET

Q HORATII FLACCI

Foil ingentia fata, Deorum in templa recepti,

EPISTOLA AD AUGUSTUM,

C UM tot suffineas er tanta negotia solus, Res Italas armis tuteris, moribus ornes, Legibus emendes; in publica commoda peccem, Si longo sermone morer tua tempora, Caesar.

COMMENTARY.

EPISTOLA AD AUGUSTUM.] In conducting this work, which is an apology for the poets of his own time. the method of the writer is no other, than that which plain fenfe, and the subject itself, required of him. For, as the main diflike to the Augustan poets had arisen from an excessive reverence paid to their elder brethren, the first part of the epistle [from line 1 to 118] is very naturally laid out in the ridicule and confutation of fo abfurd a prejudice, And having, by this preparation, obtained a candid hearing for his defence, he then proceeds [in what follows, to the end to vindicate their real merits; fetting in view the excellencies of the Latin poetry, as cultivated by the great modern masters; and throwing the blame of their ill fuccess, and of the contempt in which they had lain, not fo much on themselves, or their profession (the dignity of which, in particular, he insists highly upon, and afferts with spirit) as on the vicious VOL. II.

2 Q. HORATII FLACCI

Romulus, et Liber pater, et cum Castore Pollux, 5 Post ingentia fata, Deorum in templa recepti, Dum terras hominumque colunt genus, aspera bella

Conponunt, agros adfignant, oppida condunt; Ploravere suis non respondere favorem Speratum meritis. diram qui contudit Hydram, 10 Notaque fatali portenta labore subegit, Comperit invidiam supremo fine domari.

LOTTO BUCHOCOMMENTARY

talte of the age, and certain unfavouring circumflances, which had accidentally concurred to diffenour both.

This idea of the general plan being comprehended, the reader will find it no difficulty to perceive the order and arrangement of particular parts, which the natural transition of the poet's thought infentibly drew along with it.

fubject commences from line 5, where, by a contrivance of great beauty, a pertinent illustration of the poeds argument becomes an offering of the happiest address to the emperor. Its double purpose may be seen thus. His primary intention was to take off the force of prejudice against modern poets, arising from the superior veneration of the antients. To this end the first thing wanting was to demonstrate by some striking instance, that it was, indeed, nothing but prejudice; which he does effectually in taking that instance from the beroic, that is, the most revered, ages. For if such, whose acknowledged virtues and eminent

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Urit enim fulgore suo, qui praegravat artis Infra se positas: extinctus amabitur idem.
Praesenti tibi maturos largimur honores,
Jurandasque tuum per numen ponimus aras,
Nil oriturum alias, nil ortum tale satentes.
Sed tuus hoc populus sapiens et justus in uno,
Te nostris ducibus, te Graiis anteserendo,
Cetera nequaquam simili ratione modoque

COMMENTARY.

fervices had raised them to the rank of beroes, that is, in the pagan conception of things, to the honours of divinity, could not secure their fame, in their own times, against the malevolence of slander, what wonder that the race of wits, whose obscurer merit is less likely to dazzle the public eye, and yet, by a peculiar fatality, is more apt to awaken its jealously, should find themselves oppressed by its rudest censure? In the former case, the honours, which equal posterity paid to excelling worth, declare all such censure to have been the calumny of malice only. What reason then to conclude, it had any other original in the latter? This is the poet's argument.

But now, of these worthies themselves, whom the justice of grateful posterity had fnatched out of the hands of detraction, there were some; it seems, whose illustrious services the virtue, or vain-glory of the emperor, most affected to emulate; and these, therefore, the poet, by an ingenious flattery, selects for examples to his general observation,

Romulus, et Liber pater, et cum Caftore Pollux Post ingentia fata, &c.

B a

Further,

Q HORATII FLACCI

Aestimat; et, nisi quae terris semota suisque Temporibus desuncta videt, fastidit et odit: Sic fautor veterum, ut Tabulas peccare vetantis, Quas bis quinque viri sanxerunt, Foedera regum Vel Gabiis vel cum rigidis aequata Sabinis, 25 Pontificum libros, annosa volumina Vatum,

COMMENTARY,

To noffris dicibus, se Creiis

Further, as the good fortune of Augustus, though adorned with the same enviable qualities, had exempted him from the injuries which had constantly befallen those admired characters, this peculiar circumstance in the history of his prince affords him the happiest occasion, flattery could desire, of paying distinguished honours to his glory.

Praesenti tibi matures largimur bonores.

And this constitutes the fine address and compliment of bis application.

But this justice, which Augustus had exacted, as it were, by the very authority of his virtue, from his applauding people, was but ill discharged in other instances.

Sed tuus boc populas sapiens et justus in uno, Te nostris ducibus, te Graiis anteserendo, Cetera nequaquam simili ratione modoque Aestimat, &co.

And thus the very exception to the general rule, which forms the encomium, leads him with advantage into his argument; which was to observe and expose "the "malignant influence of prepossession, in obstructing the proper glories of living merit." So that, as good sense demands in every reasonable panegyric, the praise results from the nature and soundation of

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Dictitet Albano Musas in monte locutas.
Si, quia Graiorum sunt antiquissima quaeque
Scripta vel optima, Romani pensantur eadem
Scriptores trutina; non est quod multa loquamur:
Nil intra est olea, nil extra est in nuce duri:
Venimus ad summum sortunae: pingimus, atque

COMMENTARY.

the subject-matter, and is not violently and reluctantly dragged into it.

His general charge against his countrymen, "of "their bigoted attachment to those, dignissed by the "name of antients, in prejudice to the just deserts of "the moderns," being thus delivered; and the folly of such conduct, with some agreeable exaggeration, exposed; he sets himself, with a happy mixture of irony and argument, as well becomes the genius and character of the episte, to consute the pretences, and overturn the very foundations, on which it rested.

One main support of their folly was taken from an allowed fact, viz. "That the oldest Greek writers "were incontestably superior to the modern ones." From whence they inferred, that it was but according to nature and the course of experience, to give the like preference to the oldest Roman masters.

His confutation of this sophism consists of two parts. First, [from line 28 to 32,] he insists on the evident absurdity of the opinion he is consuming. There was no reasoning with persons capable of such extravagant positions. But, secondly, the pretended sact itself, with regard to the Greek learning, was grossly misunderstood, or perversely applied. For [from line 32 to 34] it was not true, nor could it be admitted, that the

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6 Q HORATH FIDACCI

Psallimus, et luctamur Achivis doctius unctis.
Si meliora dies, ut vina, poemata reddlt;
Scire velim, chartis pretium quotus arrogat annus,
Scriptor ab hine annos centum qui decidit, inter
Persectos veteresque referri debet, an inter
Vilis atque novos? excludat jurgia finis.
Est vetus atque probus centum qui persicit annos.
Quid? qui deperut minor uno mense vel anno, 40

COMMENTARY.

dragwed into

very oldest of the Greek writers were the best, but those only, which were old, in comparison of the mere modern Greeks. The fo much applauded models of Grecian antiquity were themselves modern, in respect of the still older and ruder essays of their first writers. It was long discipline and cultivation, the same which had given the Greek artists in the Augustan reign a Superiority over the Roman, that by degrees established the good taste, and fixed the authority, of the Greek poets; from which point it was natural, and even neceffary for succeeding, i. e. the modern, Greeks to decline. But no confequence lay from hence to the advantage of the Latin poets, in question; who were wholly unfurnished with any previous study of the arts of verse; and whose works could only be compared with the very oldest, that is, the rude, foregotten effays of the Greek poetry. So that the fine fense, fo closely that up in this concise couplet, comes out thus: "The modern Greek masters of the fine arts " are confessedly superior to the modern Roman. "The reason is, they have practised them longer, and with more diligence. Just so, the modern " Roman

EPISTOLA AD AUGUSTUM.

Inter quos referendus erit ? veterefne poetas. An quos et pracsens et postera respuat actas? Iste quidem veteres inter ponetur honeste. Qui vel mense brevi, vel toto est junior anno. Utor permisso, caudaeque pilos ut equinae 45 Paullatim vello; et demo unum, demo et item unum:

Dum cadat elusus ratione ruentis acervi, Qui redit in fastos, et virtutem aestimat annis

COMMENTARY.

"Roman writers must needs have the advantage of their old ones: who had no knowledge of writing, as n art, or, if they had, took but small care to put

" it in practice."

Further, this plea of antiquity is as uncertain in its application, as it was destitute of all truth and reason in its original foundation. For if age only must bear away the palm, what way is there of determining, which writers are modern, and which ancient? The impossibility of fixing this to the fatisfaction of an objector, which is purfued [to line 50] with much agreeable raillery, makes it evident, that the circumstance of antiquity is absolutely nothing; and that, in estimating the merit of writers, the real, intrinsic excellence of their writings themselves is alone to be regarded.

Thus far the poet's intent was to combat the general prejudice of the critic, and the archements

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Qui redit in faftos, et virtutem aestimat annis, Taking the fact for granted " of his strong prepof-" fession for antiquity, as such" he would discredit, both

8 Q. HORATII FLACCI

Miraturque nihil, nifi quod Libitina facravit.
Ennius et fapiens, et fortis, et alter Homerus, 50
Ut critici dicunt, leviter curare videtur
Quo promissa cadant, et fomnia Pythagorea.
Naevius in manibus non est, et mentibus haeret
Pene recens? adeo sanctum est vetus omne poema.
Ambigitur quotiens, uter utro sit prior; ausert 55
Pacuvius docti famam senis, Accius alti:
Dicitur Afrani toga convenisse Menandro:
Plautus ad exemplar Siculi properare Epicharmi:

COMMENTARY.

both by raillery and argument, so abfurd a conduct, What he gains by this disposition, is to come to the particulars of his charge with more advantage. For the popular contempt of modern composition, sheltering itself under a shew of learned admiration of the antients, whose age and reputation had made them truly venerable, and whose genuine merits, in the main, could not be disputed, a direct attack upon their fame, at fetting out, without any foftening, had disgusted the most moderate; whereas this prefatory appeal to common fense, under the cover of general criticism, would even dispose bigotry itself to afford the poet a candid hearing. His acculation then of the public tafte comes in here very pertinently; and is delivered, with address (from line 50 to 63] in a particular detail of the judgments passed upon the most celebrated of the old Roman poets, by the generality of the modern critics; where, to win upon their prejudices still further by his generosity and good faith, loss grant et la frong picard soil

quiry, as fact no would differedit,

EPISTOLA AD AUGUSTUM. 9

Vincere Caecilius gravitate, Terentius arte.

Hos ediscit, et hos arto stipata theatro 60

Spectat Roma potens; habet hos numeratque
poetas

Ad nostrum tempus, Livi Scriptoris ab aevo. Interdum volgus rectum videt: est ubi peccat. Si veteres ita miratur laudatque poetas, Ut nihil anteserat, nihil illis comparet; errat: 65

Si verius paulo, YAKT THE MOSS alter

he feruples not to recount fuch of their determinations on the merit of ancient writers, as were reasonable and well founded, as well as others, that he deemed less just, and as such intended more immediately to ex-

We see then with what art the poet conducts himself in this attack on the astricuts, and how it served
his purpose, by turns, to soften and aggravate the
charge. First, "he wanted to lower the reputation
"of the old poets." This was not to be done by
general invective, or an affected diffinulation of their
just praise. He admits then sfrom line 63 to 66] their
reasonable pretensions to admiration. It is the degree
of it alone, to which he objects.

Si veteres ITA miratur laudatque, &c.

Secondly, "he wanted to draw off their applauses from the ancient to the modern poets." This required the advantages of those moderns to be distinctly shewn, or, which comes to the same, the comparative desciencies of the antients to be pointed out. These were not to be dissembled, and are, as he openly insists

10 Q. HORATII FLACCI

Si quaedam nimis antique, si pleraque dure Dicere cedit eos, ignave multa satetur; Et sapit, et mecum sacit, et Jove judicat aequo. Non equidem insector, delendave carmina Laevi Esse reor, memini quae plagosum mini parvo 70 Orbilium dictare; sed emendata videri Pulchraque, et exactis minimum distantia, miror: Inter quae verbum emicuit si sorte decorum, Si versus paulo concinnior unus et alter;

the ferriples not to require furth of the first

creminations

milits [to line 69] obsolete language, rude and barbarous construction, and slovenly composition,

Si quaedam nimis ANTIQUE, fi pleraque DURE, of Dicere, cedit eos, IQN AVE, multa, in male est of over

But what then? an objector replies, these were venial faults, surely; the descences of the times, and not of the men; who, with such incorrectnesses as are here noted, might still possess the greatest salents, and produce the noblest distant. This [from line by to 70] is readily admitted. But, in the mean stime, one thing was clear, that they were not finished midels—exactly minimum distantia. Which was the main point in dispute. For the highest absurdity lay in this,

Mon weniem antiquis, fed bonorem et praemla posci.

Nay, his folly is flewn to have gone ftill greater tengths. These boasted models of antiquity, with all their imperfections, had occasionally, [line 73, 74] though the inflances were indeed rare and thinly scattered, firiking beauties. These, under the recommendation of age, which, of course, commands our

EPISTOLA ADIAUGUSTUM. 11

Injuste totum ducit venitque poema.

75
Indignor quicquam reprehendi, non quia crasse
Compositum, inlepideve putetur, sed quia nuper:
Nec veniam antiquis, sed honorem et praemia

Recte necne crocum floresque perambulet Attae Fabula, si dubitem; clament periisse pudorem 80 Cuncti pene patres: ea cum reprehendere coner, Quae gravis Aesopus, quae doctus Roscius egit.

COMMENTARY.

reverence, might well impose on the judgments of the generality, and, flanding forth with advantage, as from a shaded and dark ground, would naturally catch the eye and admiration of the more learned. Thus much the poet candidly infinuates in excuse of the bigot's ill judgment. Bur, unluckily, he had cut himself off from the benefit of this plea, by avowedly grounding his admiration, not merely on the intrinsic excellence, fo far as it went, of the ancient poetry itself; but on the advantage of any extraneous circumstance, which but casually stuck to it. The accident of a play's having paffed through the mouth, and been graced by the action of a just speaker, was sufficient [from line 79 to 82] (so inexcusable were his prejudices) to attract his wonder, and justify his esteem. In fo much that it became an infolence, generally cried out upon, for any one to centure such pieces of the theatre moder and the sund to sold

Quae gravis Æsopus, quae doctus Roscius egit.

This being the case, it was no longer a doubt, whether the affected admiration of antiquity proceeded from

12 Q HORATII FLACCI

Vel quia uil rectum, nifiquod placuit fibi, ducunt; Vel quia turpe putant parere minoribus, et, quae Inberbi didibere, fenes perdenda fateri. 85 Jam Saliare Numae carmen qui laudat, et illud Quod mecum ignorat, folus volt scire videri;

Refte neces crocum florefene perambulet Attac

of merobus of COMMENTARY delich it sluds I from a deluded judgment only, or a much worse cause. It could plainly be resolved into no other, than the wilful agency of the malignant affections; which, wherever they prevail, corrupt the fimple and ingenuous sense of the mind, either, 1. [line 83] in engendering bigb conceits of felf, and referring all degrees of excellence to the supposed infallible standard of every man's own judgment; or, z. [to line 86] in creating a falle sbame, and reluctancy in us to be directed by the judgments of others, though fen to be more equitable, whenever they are found in opposition to our own rooted and preconceived opinions. The bigotry of old men is, especially, for this reason, invincible. They hold themselves upbraided by the sharper fight of their juniors; and regard the adoption of new fentiments, at their years, as fo much abfolute lofs on the fide of the dead flock of their old literary possessions. These considerations are generally of fuch prevalency in grey veteran critics, that [from ·line 86 to 90] whenever, as in the case before us, shey pretend an uncommon zeal for antiquity, and their fagacity piques itself on detecting the fuperior value of obscure rhapsodists, whom nobody elfe reads, or is able to understand, we may be fure the fecret view of fuch, is, not the generous defence and believent vilopoun la deletione l'effette patronaise

percent.

EPISTOLA AD AUGUSTUM. 13

Ingeniis non ille favet plauditque sepultis,
Nostra sed inpugnat, nos nostraque lividus odit.
Quod si tam Graiis novitas invisa suisset,
Quam nobis; quid nunc esset vetus? aut quid
haberet,

Quod legeret tereretque viritim publicus usus?

COMMENTARY.

patronage of ancient wit, but a low malevolent pleafure in decrying the just pretentions of the modern.

Ingeniis non ille faroet plauditque sepultis, Nostra sed impugnat, nos nostraque lividus odit.

The poet had, now, made appear the unreasonable attachment of his countrymen to the fame of their old writers. He had thoroughly unravelled the sophistical pretences, on which it affected to justify itself; and had even dared to unveil the fecret iniquitous principle, from which it arose. It was now time to look forward to the effects of it; which were, in truth, very baleful; its poisonous influences being of force to corrupt and wither, as it were, in the bud, every rifing species of excellence, and fatally to check the very hopes and tendencies of true genius. Nothing can be truer than this remark; which he further enforces, and brings home to his adverfaries, by asking a pertinent question, to which it concerned them to make a ferious reply. They had magnified, line 28, the perfection of the Greek models. But what [to line 93] if the Greeks had conceived the fame aversion to novelties, as the Romans? How then could those models have ever been furnished to the public use? The question, we see, infinuates what was before

14 Q HORATII FLACCI

Ut primum positis nugari Graecia bellis Coepit, et in vitium fortuna labier acqua; Nunc athletarum studiis, nunc arsit equorum: 95 Marmoris, aut eboris fabros, aut acris amavit; Suspendit picta vultum mentemque tabella; Nunc tibicinibus, nunc est gavisa tragoedis: Sub nutrice puella velut si luderet infans,

of the total of COMMENTARY TO DESCRIPTION

before affirmed to be the truth of the cafe; that the unrivalled excellence of the Greek poets proceeded only from long and vigorous exercife, and a painful uninterrupted application to the arts of verse. The liberal spirit of that people led them to countenance every new attempt towards fuperior literary excellence: and fo, by the public favour, their writings, from rude effays, became at length the flandard and admiration of fucceeding wits. The Romans had treated their adventurers quite otherwise, and the effect was answerable. This is the purport of what to a common eye may look like a digression [from line 93 to 1081 in which is delineated the very different genius and practice of the two nations. For the Greeks [to line roal had applied themselves, in the intervals of their leifure from the toils of war, to the cultivation of every species of elegance, whether in arts, or letters; and loved to cherish the public emulation, by affording a free indulgence to the various and volatile disposition of the times. The activity of these reftless spirits was incessantly attempting some new and untried form of composition; and, when that was brought to a due degree of perfection, it turned, in good time, to the cultivation of fome other.

EPISTOLA AD AUGUSTUM. 15

Quod cupide petiit, mature plena reliquit. 100 Quid placet, aut odio est, quod non mutabile credas?

Hoc paces habuere bonae, ventique secundi. Romae dulce diu suit et sollenne, reclusa Mane domo vigilare, clienti promere jura: Scriptos nominibus rectis expendere nummos:

COMMENTARY.

Quad cupide petiit, mature plena reliquit.

So that the very caprice of bumour [line 101] affilled, in this libertine country, to advance and help forward the public taste. Such was the effect of peace and opportunity with them.

Hor paces habuere banae wentique fecundi,

Whereas the Romans [to line 108] by a more composed temperament and faturnine complexion had devoted their pains to the pursuit of domestic utilities. and a more dextrous management of the arts of gain. The confequence of which was, that when, [to line 117] by the decay of the old frugal spirit, the necessary effect of overflowing plenty and ease, they began, at length, to feek out for the elegancies of life; and a fit of verfifying, the first of all liberal amusements, that usually seizes an idle people, had come upon them; their ignorance of rules, and want of exercise in the art of writing, rendered them wholly unfit to fucceed in it. So that their aukward attempts in poetry were now as difgraceful to their tafte, as their total difregard of it, before, had been to their civility. The root of this mischief was the idolatrous regard paid to their ancient poets: which unluckily, when the public emulation was fet a going,

16 Q. HORATII FLACCI

Majores audire, minori dicere, per quae
Crescere res posset, minui damnosa libido.
Mutavit mentem populus levis, et calet uno
Scribendi studio: puerique patresque severi
Fronde comas vincti coenant, et carmina dictant.
Ipse ego, qui nullos me adsirmo scribere versus,
Invenior Parthis mendacior; et prius orto
Sole vigil, calamum et chartas et scrinia posco.
Navem agere ignarus navis timet: abrotonum
aegro

Non audet, nisi qui didicit, dare: quod medicorum est, 115 Promittunt medici: tractant fabrilia fabri:

Scribimus indocti doctique poemata passim.

COMMENTARY.

going, not only checked its progress, but gave it a wrong bias; and, instead of helping true genius to outstrip the lame and tardy endeavours of ancient wit, drew it aside into a vicious and unprofitable mimicry of its very impersections. Whence it had come to pass, that, whereas in other arts, the previous knowledge of rules is required to the practice of them, in this of versitying, no such qualification was deemed necessary.

Scribimus indocti doctique poemata paffim.

This mischance was doubly fatal to the Latin poetry. For the ill success of these blind adventurers had increased the original mischief, by confirming, as it needs must, the superstitious reverence of the old writers; and insensibly brought, as well the art itself,

Hic error tamen et levis haec infania quantas Virtutes habeat, fic collige: vatis avarus Non temere est animus: versus amat, hoc studet unum;

Detrimenta, fugas fervorum, incendia ridet: 121
Non fraudem focio, puerove incogitat ullam
Pupillo: vivit filiquis, et pane fecundo:
Militiae quanquam piger et malus, utilis urbi;
Si das hoc, parvis quoque rebus magna juvari;
Os tenerum pueri balbumque poëta figurat: 126
Torquet ab obscoenis jam nunc fermonibus
aurem;

Mox etiam pectus praeceptis format amicis, Asperitatis et invidiae corrector et irae:

COMMENTARY.

itself, as the modern professors of it; into disrepute with the discerning public. The vindication of both; then, at this critical juncture, was become highly seafonable; and to this, which was the poet's main purpose, he addresses himself through the remainder of the epistle.

ing sufficiently obviated the popular and reigning prejudices against the modern poets, his office of advocate for their same, which he had undertaken, and was now to discharge, in form, required him to set their real merits and pretensions in a just light. He enters therefore immediately on this task. And, in drawing the character of the true poet, endeavours to impress the emperor with as advantageous an idea as possible, of the worth and dignity of his calling. And this, not in the sierce insulting tone of a zealot Vol. II.

18 Q. HORATII FLACCI

Recte facta refert; orientia tempora notis 130 Instruit exemplis; inopem solatur et aegrum. Castis cum pueris ignara puella mariti Disceret unde preces, vatem ni Musa dedisset? Poscit opem chorus, et praesentia numina sentit; Caelestis implorat aquas, docta prece blandus; 135 Avertit morbos, metuenda pericula pellit; Inpetrat et pacem, et locupletem frugibus annum: Carmine Di superi placantur, carmine Manes.

COMMENTARY.

for the bonour of his order, which to the great is always difgusting, and where the occasion is, confessedly, not of the last importance, plainly absurd; but with that unpretending air of infinuation, which good fenfe, improved by a thorough knowledge of the world, teaches: with that feeming indifference, which difarms prejudice: in a word, with that gracious smile in his afpect, which his throng admirer and faint copyer, Perfius, so justly noted in him, and which convinces almost without the help of argument; or, to fay it more truly, perfuades where it doth not properly convince. In this disposition he sets out on his defence; and yet omits no particular, which could any way ferve to the real recommendation of poets, or which indeed the gravest or warmest of their friends have ever pleaded in their behalf. This defence confifts [from line 118 to 139] in bringing into view their many civil, moral, and religious virtues. For the muse, as the poet contends, (and nothing could be more likely to conciliate the efteem of the politic emperor) administers, in this threefold eapacity, to the fervice of the state.

701

But

Agricolae prisci, fortes, parvoque beati,
Condita post frumenta, levantes tempore sesto 140
Corpus et ipsum animum spe finis dura ferentem,
Cum sociis operum pueris et conjuge sida,
Tellurem porco, Silvanum lacte piabant,
Floribus et vino Genium mentorem brevis aevi.
Fescennina per hunc invecta licentia morem 145
Versibus alternis opprobria rustica fudit;
Libertasque recurrentis accepta per annos

COMMENTARY.

But religion, which was its noblest end, was, befides, the first object of poetry. The dramatic muse, in particular, had her birth, and derived her very character, from it. This circumstance then leads him with advantage, to give an historical deduction of the rife and progress of the Latin poety, from its first rude workings in the days of barbarous superstition, through every successive period of its improvement, down to his own times. Such a view of its descent and gradual reformation, was directly to the poet's purpose. For, having magnified the virtues of his order, as of fuch importance to fociety, the question naturally occurred, by what unhappy means it had fallen out, that it was, nevertheless, in such low estimation with the public. The answer is, that the state of the Latin poetry, as yet, was very rude and imperfect: and so the public difregard was occasioned, only, by its not having attained to that degree of perfection, of which its nature was capable. Many reasons had concurred to keep the Latin poetry in this state, which he proceeds to enumerate. The first and principal was [from line 139 to 164] the little C 2 attention

at

20 Q HORATII FLACCI

Lusit amabiliter: donec jam saevus apertam
In rabiem coepit verti jocus, et per honestas
Ire domos impune minax. doluere cruento
Dente lacessiti: suit intactis quoque cura
Conditione super communi: quin etiam lex
Poenaque lata, malo quae nollet carmine quemquam

Describi. vertere modum, formidine fustis Ad bene dicendum delectandumque redacti. 155 Graecia capta ferum victorem cepit, et artis

COMMENTARY.

attention paid to critical learning, and the cultivation of a correct and just spirit of composition. Which, again, had arisen from the coarse illiberal disposition of the Latin muse, who had been nurtured and brought up under the roof of rural superstition; and this, by an impure mixture of licentious jollity, had so corrupted her very nature, that it was only by slow degrees, and not till the conquest of Greece had imported arts and learning into Italy, that she began to chassise her manners, and assume a juster and more becoming deportment. And still she was but in the condition of a rustic beauty, when practising her aukward airs, and making her first ungracious essays towards a manner.

in longum tamen aevum

Manserunt, bodieque manent vestigia ruris.

Her late acquaintance with the Greek models had, indeed, improved her air, and inspired an inclination to emulate their noblest graces. But how successfully, we are given to understand from her unequal attempts in the two sublimer species of their poetry, the TRAGIC, and COMIC DRAMAS.

i. [from

Intulit agresti Latio. sic horridus ille
Desluxit numerus Saturnius, et grave virus
Munditiae pepulere: sed in longum tamen aevum
Manserunt, hodieque manent, vestigia ruris. 160
Serus enim Graecis admovit acumina chartis;
Et post Punica bella quietus quaerere coepit,
Quid Sophocles et Thespis et Aeschylus utile
ferrent:

Tentavit quoque rem, fi digne vertere posset: •
Et placuit fibi, natura sublimis et acer. 165

COMMENTARY.

1. [from line 160 to 168.] The fludy of the Greek tragedians had very naturally, and to good purpole, in the infancy of their tafte, disposed the Latin writers to translation. Here they fluck long; for their tragedy, even in the Augustan age, was little else; and yet they fucceeded but indifferently in it. The bold and animated genius of Rome was, it is readily owned, well fuited to this work. And for force of colouring, and a truly tragic elevation, the Roman poets came not behind their great originals. But unfortunately their judgment was unformed, and they were too foon fatisfied with their own productions. Strength and fire was all they endeavoured after. And with this praise they fate down perfectly contented. The discipline of correction, the curious polithing of art, which had given fuch a lustre to the Greek tragedians, they knew nothing of; or, to speak their case more truly, they held difgraceful to the high spirit and energy of the Roman genius:

TURPEM PUTATIN SCRIPTIS METUITQUE LITURAM.

n

22 Q. HORATII FLACCI

Nam spirat tragicum satis, et seliciter audet;
Sed turpem putat inscitus metuitque lituram.
Creditur, ex medio quia res arcessit, habere
Sudoris minimum; sed habet comoedia tanto
Plus oneris, quanto veniae minus. aspice, Plautus
Quo pacto partis tutetur amantis ephebi; 171
Ut patris attenti, lenonis ut insidiosi:
Quantus sit Dossennus edacibus in parasitis:
Quam non adstricto percurrat pulpita socco.
Gestit enim nummum in loculos demittere;
post hoc

COMMENTARY.

2. It did not fare better with them [from line 168 to 175] in their attempts to rival the Greek comedy. They preposterously set out with the notion of its being easier to execute this drama than the tragic: whereas, to hit its genuine character with exactness, was, in truth, a point of much more difficulty. As the subject of comedy was taken from common life, they supposed an ordinary degree of care might suffice to do it justice. No wonder, then, they overlooked, or never came up to, that nice adjustment of the manners, that truth and decorum of character, wherein the glory of comic painting confifts, and which none but the quickest eye can discern, and the steddiest hand execute; and, in the room, amused us with bigb colouring, and false drawing; with extravagant, aggravated portraitures; which, neglecting the modest proportion of real life, are the certain arguments of an unpractifed pencil, or vicious tafte.

What

Securus, cadat an recto stet fabula talo. 176

Quem tulit ad scenam ventoso gloria curru,

Exanimat lentus spectator, sedulus inslat.

Sic leve, sic parvum est, animum quod laudis

Subruit ac reficit. valeat res ludicra, fi me 180 Palma negata macrum, donata reducit opimum. Saepe, etiam audacem, fugat hocterretque poetam:

COMMENTARY.

What contributed to this proflitution of the comic muse, was [to line 177] the seducement of that corruptress of all virtue, the love of money; which had thoroughly infected the Roman wits, and was, in fact, the fole object of their pains. Hence, provided they could but catch the applauses of the people, to which the pleafantry of the comic fcene more especially aspires. and so secure a good round price from the magistrates. whose office it was to furnish this kind of entertainment, they became indifferent to every nobler view and honester purpose. In particular [to line 182] they so little confidered fame and the praise of good writing, that they made it the ordinary topic of their ridicule: representing it as the mere illusion of vanity, and the pitiable infirmity of lean-witted minds, to be catched by the lure of fo empty and unfubstantial a benefit.

Though, were any one, in defiance of public ridicule, so daring (as there is no occasion in life, which calls for, or demonstrates a greater firmness) as frankly to avow and submit himself to this generous motive, the surest inspirer of every virtuous excellence, yet one thing remained to check and weaken the vigour of his emulation. This [from line 182 to 187]

24 Q. HORATII FLACCI

Quod numero plures, virtute et honore minores, Indocti, stolidique, et depugnare parati 184 Si discordet eques, media inter carmina poscunt Aut ursum aut pugiles: his nam plebecula gaudet. Verum equiti quoque jam migravit ab aure voluptas

Omnis, ad ingratos oculos, et gaudia vana. Quatuor aut pluris aulaea premuntur in horas;

COMMENTARY.

was the folly and ill taste of the undiscerning multitude; who, in all countries, have a great share in determining the sate and character of scenical reprefentations, but, from the popular constitution of the government, were, at Rome, of the first consequence. These, by their rude clamours, and the authority of their numbers, were enough to dishearten the most intrepid genius; when, after all his endeavours to reap the glory of an absolute work, the action was almost sure to be mangled and broken in upon by the shews of wild beasts and gladiators; those dear delights, which the Romans, it seems, prized much above the highest pleasures of the drama.

Nay, the poet's case was still more desperate. For it was not the untutored rabble, as in other countries, that gave a countenance to these illiberal sports: even rank and quality, at Rome, debased itself in shewing the siercest passion for these shews, and was as ready, as abject commonalty itself, to prefer the uninstructing

pleasures of the eye to those of the car.

EQUITI quoque jam migravit ab aure voluptas

Omnis ad ingratos oculos et gandia vana.

And,

Dum fugiunt equitum turmae, peditumque catervae:

Mox trahitur manibus regum fortuna retortis: Esseda sestinant, pilenta, petorrita, naves: Captivum portatur ebur, captiva Corinthus. Si foret in terris, rideret Democritus; seu Diversum confusa genus panthera camelo, 195 Sive elephas albus volgi converterit ora:

COMMENTARY.

And, because this barbarity of taste had contributed more than any thing else to deprave the poetry of the stage, and discourage its best masters from studying its perfection, what follows [from line 189 to 207] is intended, in all the keenness of raillery, to satirize this madness. It afforded an ample field for the poet's ridicule. For, besides the riotous disorders of their theatre, the senselses admiration of pomp and spectacle in their plays had so enchanted his countrymen, that the very decorations of the scene, the tricks and trappings of the comedians, were surer to catch the applauses of the gaping multitude, than any regard to the justness of the poet's design, or the beauty of his execution.

Here the poet should naturally have concluded his defence of the dramatic writers; having alledged every thing in their favour, that could be urged, plausibly, from the state of the Roman stage: the genius of the people: and the several prevailing practices of ill taste, which had brought them into disrepute with the best judges. But sinding himself obliged, in the course of this vindication of the modern stage-poets, to censure, as sharply as their very enemies, the vices and

defects

26 Q. HORATII FLACCI

Spectaret populum ludis attentius ipsis,
Ut sibi præbentem mimo spectacula plura:
Scriptores autem narrare putaret asello
Fabellam surdo. nam quae pervincere voces 200
Evaluere sonum, reserunt quem nostra theatra?
Garganum mugire putes nemus, aut mare Tuscum.
Tanto cum strepitu ludi spectantur, et artes,
Divitiaeque peregrinae: quibus oblitus actor
Cum stetit in scena, concurrit dextera laevae: 205
Dixit adhuc aliquid? nil sane. quid placet ergo?
Lana Tarentino violas imitata veneno.
Ac ne sorte putes me, quae sacere ipse recusem,

CONMENTARY.

defects of their poetry; and fearing lest this severity on a fort of writing, to which himself had never pretended, might be misinterpreted as the effect of envy only, and a malignant disposition towards the art itself, under cover of pleading for its prosessor, he therefore frankly avows [from hine 208 to 214] his preference of the dramatic, to every other species of poetry; declaring the sovercignty of its pathos over the affections, and the magic of its illusive scenery on the imagination, to be the highest argument of poetic excellence, the last and noblest exercise of the human genius.

One thing still remained. He had taken upon himself to apologize for the Roman poets in general; as may be seen from the large terms, in which he

proposes his subject.

Hic error tamen et levis baec infania quantas Virtutes habeat, se collige.

Cum recte tractent alii, laudare maligne:
Ille per extentum funem mihi posse videtur 210
Ire poeta; meum qui pectus inaniter angit,
Inritat, mulcet, falsis terroribus inplet,
Ut magus; et modo me Thebis, modo ponit
Athenis.

Verum age, et his, qui se lectori credere malunt, Quam spectatoris sastidia serre superbi, 215 Curam impende brevem: si munus Apolline dignum

Vis complere libris; et vatibus addere calcar, Ut studio majore petant Helicona virentem.

COMMENTARY.

But, after a general encomium on the office itself, he confines his defence to the writers for the stage only. In conclusion then, he was constrained, by the very purpose of his address, to say a word or two in behalf of the remainder of this neglected family; of those, who, as the poet expresses it, had rather trust to the equity of the closet, than subject themselves to the caprice and inspects of the theatre.

Now, as before, in afferting the honour of the stage-poets, he every-where supposes the emperor's discussive to have sprung from the wrong conduct of the poets themselves, and then extenuates the blame of such conduct, by considering, still further, the causes which gave rise to it; so he prudently observes the like method here. The politeness of his address concedes to Augustus, the just offence he had taken to his brother poets; whose honour, however, he contrives to save, by softening the occasions of it. This is the drift of what follows [from line 214 to 229] where

28 Q. HORATII FLACCI

Multa quidem nobis facimus mala faepe poëtae, (Ut vineta egomet caedam mea) cum tibi librum Sollicito damus, aut fesso: cum laedimur, unum Si quis amicorum est ausus reprendere versum: Cum loca jam recitata revolvimus inrevocati: Cum lamentamur non adparere labores Nostros, et tenui deducta poemata filo:

COMMENTARY.

he pleasantly recounts the several foibles and indiscretions of the muse; but in a way, that could only dispose the emperor to smile at, or at most to pity, her infirmities, not provoke his ferious censure and They amount, on the whole, but to certain idlenesses of vanity, the almost inseparable attendants of voit, as well as beauty; and may be forgiven in each, as implying a strong defire of pleasing, or rather as qualifying both to please. One of the most exceptionable of these vanities was a fond persuasion, too readily taken up by men of parts and genius, that preferment is the constant pay of merit; and that, from the moment their talents become known to the public, distinction and advancement are sure to follow. They believed, in short, they had only to convince the world of their superior abilities, to deserve the favour and countenance of their prince. But fond and prefumptuous as these hopes are (continues the poet [from line 229 to 244] with all the infinuation of a courtier, and yet with a becoming fense of the dignity of his own character) it may deserve a serious confideration, what poets are fit to be entrusted with the glory of princes; what ministers are worth retain-

Cum speramus eo rem venturam, ut, simul atque Carmina rescieris nos singere, commodus ultro Arcessas, et egere vetes, et scribere cogas.

Sed tamen est operae pretium cognoscere, qualis Aedituos habeat belli spectata domique 230 Virtus, indigno non committenda poetae.

Gratus Alexandro regi Magno suit ille

COMMENTARY.

ing in the fervice of an illustrious VIRTUE, whose honours demand to be folemnized with a religious reverence, and should not be left to the profanation of vile, unhallowed hands. And, to support the authority of this remonstrance, he alledges the example of a great monarch, who had dishonoured himself by a neglect of this care; of ALEXANDER THE GREAT. who, when master of the world, as Augustus now was, perceived, indeed, the importance of gaining a poet to his fervice; but unluckily chose fo ill, that his encomiums (as must ever be the case with a vile panegyrift) but tarnished the native splendor of those virtues, which his office required him to prefent, in their fullest and fairest glory, to the admiration of the world. In his appointment of artiffs, whose skill is, alfo, highly ferviceable to the fame of princes, he shewed a truer judgment. For he suffered none but an APELLES and a Lysippus to counterfeit the form and fashion of his person. But his taste, which was thus exact, and even subtile in what concerned the mechanic execution of the fine_arts, took up with a CHOERILUS, to transmit an image of his mind to future ages; fo grofly undifferning was he in works of poetry, and the liberal offerings of the muse! And

30 Q. HORATII FLACCI

Choerilos, incultis qui versibus et male natis
Rettulit acceptos, regale nomisma, Philippos.
Sed veluti tractata notam labemque remittunt 235
Atramenta, sere scriptores carmine soedo
Splendida facta linunt. idem rex ille, poema
Qui tam ridiculum tam care prodigus emit,
Edicto vetuit; ne quis se, praeter Apellen
Pingeret, aut alius Lysippo cuderet aera
240
Fortis Alexandri voltum simulantia. quod si
Judicium subtile videndis artibus illud
Ad libros et ad haec Musarum dona vocares;
Boeotum in crasso jurares aere natum.
At neque dedecorant tua de se judicia, atque 245

COMMENTARY.

And thus the poet makes a double use of the ill judgment of this imperial critic. For nothing could better demonstrate the importance of poetry to the honour of greatness, than that this illustrious conqueror, without any particular knowledge or discernment in the ert itself, should think himself concerned to court its affistance. And, then, what could be more likely to engage the emperor's further protection and love of soctry, than the infinuation (which is made with infinite address) that, as he honoured it equally, so he understood its merits much better? For from line 248 to 248, where, by a beautiful concurrence, the flattery of his prince falls in with the honester purpose of doing justice to the memory of his friends] it was not the same unintelligent liberality, which had cherished Choerilus, that poured the full stream of Caesar's bounty

Munera, quae multa dantis cum laude tulerunt Dilecti tibi Virgilius Variusque poetae:
Nec magis expressi voltus per aënea signa,
Quam per vatis opus mores animique virorum
Clarorum adparent. nec sermones ego mallem 250
Repentis per humum, quam res componere gestas,
Terrarumque situs, et slumina dicere, et arcis
Montibus impositas, et barbara regna, tuisque
Auspiciis totum consecta duella per orbem,
Claustraque custodem pacis cohibentia Janum,
Et formidatam Parthis, te principe, Romam: 256
Si quantum cuperem, possem quoque. sed neque

COMMENTARY.

bounty on fuch persons, as VARIUS and VIRGIL. And, as if the spirit of these inimitable poets had, at once, feized him, he breaks away in a bolder run of verse [from line 248 to 250] to fing the triumphs of an art, which expressed the manners and the mind in fuller and more durable relief, than painting, or even sculpture, had ever been able to give to the external figure: And [from line 250 to the end] apologizes for bimfelf in adopting the humbler epistolary species, when a warmth of inclination and the unrivaled glories of his prince were continually urging him on to the nobler, encomiaftic poetry. His excuse, in brief, is taken from the conscious inferiority of his genius, and a tenderness for the same of the emperor, which is never more differred than by the officious fedulity of bad poets to do it honour. And with this apology, one while condescending to the unfeigned

32. Q. HORATII FLACCI

Carmen majestas recipit tua: nec meus audet Rem tentare pudor, quam vires serre recusent. Sedulitas autem stulte, quem diligit, urguet; 260 Praecipue cum se numeris commendat et arte. Discit enim citius, meminitque libentius illud Qued quis deridet, quam quod probat et veneratur. Nil moror officium, quod me gravat: ac neque sicto In pejus voltu proponi cereus usquam, 265 Nec prave sactis decorari versibus opto: Ne rubeam pingui donatus munere, et una Cum scriptore meo capsa porrectus operta, Deferar in vicum vendentem thus et odores, Et piper, et quicquid chartis amicitur ineptis. 270

COMMENTARY.

unfeigned humility of a person, sensible of the kind and measure of his abilities, and then, again, sustaining itself by a freedom, and even samiliarity, which real merit knows, on certain occasions, to take without offence, the epistle concludes.

If the general opinion may be trusted, this, which was one of the last, is also among the noblest, of the great poet's compositions. Perhaps, the reader, who considers it in the plain and simple order, to which the foregoing analysis hath reduced it, may satisfy himself, that this praise hath not been undeservedly bestowed.

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NOTES

ONTHE

EPISTLE TO AUGUSTUS.

Vol. II.

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ON THE

EPISTLE TO AUGUSTUS.

PISTOLA AD AUGUSTUM.] The epiftle to Augustus is an apology for the Roman poets. The epiftle to the Pisos, a criticism on their poetry. This to Augustus may be therefore considered as a sequel of that to the Pisos; and which could not well be omitted; for the author's design of forwarding the study and improvement of the art of poetry required him to bespeak the public favour to its professors.

But as, there, in correcting the abuses of their poetry, he mixes, occasionally, some encomiums on poets; so, here, in pleading the cause of the poets, we find him interweaving instructions on poetry. Which was but according to the writer's occasions in each work. For the freedom of his censure on the art of poetry was to be softened by some expressions of his good-will towards the poets; and this apology for their fame had been too direct and unmanaged, but for the qualify-

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ing appearance of its intending the further benefit of the art. The coincidence, then, of the fame general method, as well as design, in the two epistles, made it not improper to give them together, and on the same footing, to the public. Though both the subject and method of this last are so clear as to make a continued commentary upon it much less wanted.

4. SI LONGO SERMONE MORER TUA TEM-PORA, CAESAR. The poet is thought to begin with apologizing for the shortness of this epifile. And yet it is one of the longest he ever wrote. How is this inconfiftency to be reconciled? " Horace parle pêut être ainsi pour ne pas " rebuter Auguste, et pour lui faire connôitre, " qu'il auroit fait une lettre, beaucoup plus " longue, s'il avoit fuivi fon inclination." This is the best account of the matter we have, hitherto, been able to come at. But the familiar civility of fuch a compliment, as M. Dacier supposes, though it might be well enough to an equal, or, if dreffed up in spruce phrases, might make a figure in the lettres familieres et galantes of his own nation; yet is furely of a cast entirely foreign to the Roman gravity, more especially in an address to the emperor of the world. Mr. Pope, perceiving the abfurdity of the common inrerpretation, feems to have read the lines interro-

EPISTLE TO AUGUSTUS. 37

interrogatively; which, though it faves the fenfe, and fuits the purpose of the English poet very well, yet neither agrees with the language nor ferious air of the original. The case, I believe, was this. The genius of epistolary writing demands, that the subject-matter be not abruptly delivered, or haftily obtruded on the person addreffed; but, as the law of decorum prescribes (for the rule holds in writing, as in conversation), be gradually and respectfully introduced to him. This obtains more particularly in applications to the great, and on important subjects. But, now, the poet, being to address his prince on a point of no finall delicacy, and on which he forefaw he should have occasion to hold him pretty long, prudently contrives to get, as foon as poffible, into his subject; and, to that end, hath the art to convert the very transgression of this rule into the justest and most beautiful compliment.

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That cautious preparation, which is ordinarily requisite in our approaches to greatness, had been, the poet observes, in the present case, highly unseasonable, as the business and interests of the empire must, in the mean time, have stood still and been suspended. By sermone then we are to understand, not the body of the epistle, but the proeme or introduction only. The body, as of public concern, might be allowed to engage, at full length, the emperor's attention. But the

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introduction, confisting of ceremonial only, the common good required him to shorten as much as possible. It was no time for using an infignificant preamble, or, in our English phrase, of making long speeches. The reason, too, is founded, not merely in the elevated rank of the emperor, but in the peculiar diligence and follicitude, with which, history tells us, he endeavoured to promote, by various ways, the interests of his country. So that the compliment is as just as it is polite. It may be further observed, that ferme is used in Horace, to signify the ordinary ftyle of conversation. [See Sat. i. 3. 65. and iv. 42.] and therefore not improperly denotes the familiarity of the epistolary address, which, in its eafy expression, so nearly approaches to it.

13. URIT ENIM FULGORE SUO, QUI PRAE-GRAVAT ARTES INFRA SE POSITAS: EXTINC-TUS AMABITUR IDEM.] The poet, we may fuppose, spoke this from experience. And so might another of later date when he complained:

Unhappy Wit, like most mistaken things, Atones not for that envy which it brings.

Essay on Crit. ver. 494.

Unless it be thought, that, as this was faid by him very early in life, it might rather pass for a prediction of his future fortunes. Be this as it will,

EPISTLE TO AUGUSTUS. 39

will, the fufferings, which unhappy wit is conceived to bring on itself from the envy, it excites, are, I am apt to think, fomewhat aggravated; at least if one may judge from the effects it had on this complainant. That which would be likely to afflict him most, was the envy of his friends. But the generofity of these deserves to The wits took no offence at his be recorded. fame, till they found it eclipse their own: And his philosopher and guide, it is well known, fluck close to him, till another and brighter star had gotten the ascendant. Or, supposing there might be some malice in the case, it is plain there was little mischief. And for this little the poet's creed provides an ample recompence. Extinc-TUS AMABITUR IDEM: not, we may be fure, by those he most improved, enlightened, and obliged; but by late impartial posterity; and by ONE at least of his furviving friends, who generoufly took upon him the patronage of his fame. and who inherits his genius and his virtues.

14. EXTINCTUS AMABITUR IDEM.] Envy, fays a discerning antient, is the vice of those, who are too weak to contend, and too proud to submit: vitium eorum, qui nec cedere volunt, nec possunt contendere [a]. Which, while it sufficiently exposes the folly and malignity of this hateful

[a] Quinctilian, lib. xi. c. 1.

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passion, secures the honour of human nature: as implying at the fame time, that its worst corruptions are not without a mixture of generofity in them. For this false pride in refusing to fubmit, though abfurd and mischievous enough, when unsupported by all ability to contend, yet discovers such a sense of superior excellence, as shews, how difficult it is for human nature to divest itself of all virtue. Accordingly, when the too powerful splender is withdrawn, our natural veneration of it takes place: Extinclus amabitur idem. This is the true exposition of the poet's fentiment; which therefore appears just the reverse of what his French interpreter would fix upon him. "La justice, que nous " rendons aux grands hommes après leur mort. " ne vient pas de l'AMOUR, que nous avons pour " leur vertu, mais de la HAINE, dont notre cœur " est rempli pour ceux, qui ont pris leur PLACE." An observation, which only becomes the misanthropy of an old cynic virtue, or the selfishness of a modern fystem of ethics.

15. PRAESENTI TIBI MATUROS, &c. to line 18.7 We are not to wonder at this and the like extravagances of adulation in the Augustan poets. They had ample authority for what they did of this fort. We know, that altars were erected to the emperor by the command of the fenate; and

and that he was publickly invoked, as an eftablished, tutelary divinity. But the feeds of the corruption had been fown much earlier. For we find it fprung up, or rather (as of all the ill weeds, which the teeming foil of human depravity throws forth, none is more thriving and grows faster than this of flattery) flourishing at its height, in the tyranny of J. CAESAR. Balbus, in a letter to Cicero, [Ep. ad Att. 1. ix.] fwears by the health and fafety of Cafar : ità incolumi Caefare, moriar. And Dio tells us [1. xliv.] that it was, by the express injunction of the senate, decreed, even in Caesar's life-time, that the Romans should bind themselves by this oath. The senate also, as we learn from the fame writer, [l. xliii.] upon receiving the news of his defeat of Pompey's fons, caused his starue to be fet up, in the temple of Romulus, with this infcription, DEO INVICTO [b].

It is true, these and still greater honours had been long paid to the Roman governors in their

[b] On anxious imageneries. Though, to complete the farce, it was with the greatest shyness and reluctance, that the humility of these lords of the universe could permit itself to accept the ensigns of deity, as the court-historians of those times are forward to inform us. An affectation, which was thought to sit so well upon them, that we find it afterwards practised, in the absurdest and most impudent manner, by the worst of their successors.

provinces,

provinces, by the abject, flavish Asiatics. And this, no doubt, facilitated the admission of such idolatries into the capital [c]. But that a people, from the highest notions of an independent republican equality, could fo foon be brought to this prostrate adoration of their first lord, is perfeetly amazing! In this, they shewed themfelves ripe for fervitude. Nothing could keep them out of the hands of a mafter. And one can fcarcely read fuch accounts as thefe, without condemning the vain efforts of dying patriotifin, which laboured fo fruitleffly, may one not almost fay, so weakly? to protract the liberty of fuch a people. Who can, after this, wonder at the incense, offered up by a few court-poets? The adulation of Virgil, which has given fo much offence, and of Horace, who keeps pace with him, was, we fee, but the authorized language of the times; presented indeed with address, but without the heightenings and privileged licence of their profession. For, to their credit, it must be owned, that, though in the office of poets, they were to comply with the popular voice, and echo it back to the ears of fovereignty; yet, as men, they had too much good fense, and too scrupulous a regard to the

dignity

[[]c] See a learned and accurate differtation on the subject in HIST. DE L'ACAD. DES INSCR. &c. tom. i.

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dignity of their characters, to exaggerate and go beyond it.

It should, in all reason, surprize and disgust us still more, that modern writers have not always shewn themselves so discrete. The grave and learned Lipsius was not ashamed, even without the convenient pretext of popular flattery, or poetic colouring, in fo many words, to make a god of his patron: who, though neither king, nor pope, was yet the next best material for this manufacture, an archbishop. For, though the critic knew, that it was not every wood that will make a Mercury, yet nobody would dispute the fitness of that, which grew so near the altar. In plain words, I am speaking of an archbishop of MECHLIN, whom, after a deal of fullome compliment (which was the vice of the man), he exalts at last, with a pagan complaifance, into the order of deities, " Ad haec," fays he, " erga omnes humanitas et facilitas me " faciunt, ut omnes te non tanquam hominem " aliquem de nostro coetu, sed tanquam DEUM " QUENDAM DE COELO DELAPSUM INTUEAN-" TUR ET ADMIRENTUR."

16. JURANDASQUE TUUM PER NUMEN PONI-MUS ARAS.] On this idea of the APOTHEOSIS, which was the usual mode of flattery in the Augustan age, but, as having the countenance

of public authority, fometimes inartificially enough employed, Virgil hath projected one of the noblest allegories in ancient poetry, and at the same time hath given to it all the force of just compliment, the occasion itself allowed. Each of these excellencies was to be expected from his talents. For, as his genius led him to the fublime; fo his exquisite judgment would instruct him to palliate this bold fiction, and qualify, as much as possible, the shocking adulation, implied in it. So fingular a beauty deferves to be shewn at large.

The third GEORGIC fets out with an apology for the low and fimple argument of that work, which, yet, the poet esteemed, for its novelty, preferable to the fublimer, but trite, themes of the Greek writers. Not but he intended, on fome future occasion, to adorn a nobler subject. This was the great plan of the Aeneis, which he now prefigures and unfolds at large. For, taking advantage of the noblest privilege of his art, he breaks away, in a fit of prophetic enthufasin, to fortel his successes in this projected enterprize, and, under the imagery of the ancient triumph, which comprehends, or fuggests to the imagination, whatever is most august in human affairs, to delineate the future glories of this ambitious defign. The whole conception, as we shall fee, is of the utmost grandeur and magni-

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magnificence; though, according to the usual management of the poet (which, as not being apprehended by his critics, hath surnished occafion, even to the best of them, to charge him with a want of the sublime) he hath contrived to soften and familiarize its appearance to the reader, by the artful manner in which it is introduced. It stands thus:

tentanda via est, qua me quoque possim Tollere humo, VICTORQUE virûm volitare per ora.

This idea of victory, thus cafually dropped, he makes the basis of his imagery; which, by means of this gradual preparation, offers itself easily to the apprehension, though it thereby loses, as the poet designed it should, much of that broad glare, in which writers of less judgment love to shew their ideas, as tending to set the common reader at a gaze. The allegory then proceeds:

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Primus ego patriam mecum (modo vita supersit) Aonio rediens deducam vertice Musas.

The projected conquest was no less than that of all the Grecian Muses at once; whom, to carry on the decorum of the allegory, he threatens, 1. to force from their high and advantageous situation on the summit of the Aonian mount; and, 2. bring captive with him into Italy: the former circumstance intimating to us the difficulty

ficulty and danger of the enterprize; and the latter, his complete execution of it.

The palmy, triumphal entry, which was usual to victors on their return from foreign successes, follows:

Primus Idumaeas referam tibi, Mantua, palmas.

But ancient conquerors did not hold it sufficient to reap this transient fruit of their labours. They were ambitious to consecrate their glory to immortality, by a temple, or other public monument, which was to be built out of the spoils of the conquered cities or countries. This, the reader sees, is suitable to the idea of the great work proposed; which was, out of the old remains of Grecian art, to compose a new one, that should comprize the virtues of them all: as, in fact, the Aeneid is known to unite in itself whatever is most excellent, not in Homer only, but, universally, in the wits of Greece. The everlasting monument of the marble temple is then reared:

Et viridi in campo templum de MARMORE ponam.

And, because ancient superstition usually preferred, for these purposes, the banks of rivers to other situations, therefore the poet, in beautiful allusion to the site of some of the most celebrated pagan temples, builds his on the Mincius. We

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fee with what a fcrupulous propriety the allufion is carried on:

Propter aquam, tardis ingens ubi flexibus errat MINCIUS, et tenera praetexit arundine ripas.

Next, this temple was to be dedicated, as a monument of the victor's piety, as well as glory, to some propitious, tutelary deity, under whose auspices the great adventure had been atchieved. The dedication is then made to the poet's divinity, Augustus:

In medio mihi CAESAR erit, templumque tenebit.

TEMPLUM TENEBIT. The expression is emphatical; as intimating to us, and presiguring the secret purpose of the Aeneis, which was, in the person of Aeneas, to shadow forth and confecrate the character of Augustus. His divinity was to fill and occupy that great work. And the ample circuit of the epic plan was projected only, as a more awful enclosure of that august presence, which was to inhabit and solemnize the vast round of this poetic building.

And now the wonderful address of the poet's artifice appears. The mad servility of his country had deissed the emperor in good earnest: and his brother poets made no scruple to worship in his temples, and to come before him with handfuls of real incense, smoking from the alters. But the sobriety of Virgil's adoration was of another

another cast. He seizes this circumstance only to embody a poetical fiction; which, on the fupposition of an actual deissication, hath all the force of compliment, which the fall implies, and yet, as presented through the chaste veil of allegory, eludes the offence, which the naked recital must needs have given to fober and reasonable men. Had the emperor's popular divinity been flatly acknowledged and adored, the praise, even under Virgil's management, had been infufferable for its extravagance; and, without some support for his poetical numen to rest upon, the figure had been more forced and strained, than the rules of just writing allow. As it is, the historical truth of his apotheofis authorizes and supports the fiction; and the fiction, in its turn, ferves to refine and palliate the history.

The Aene's being, by the poet's improvement of this circumftance, thus naturally predicted under the image of a temple, we may expect to find a close and studied analogy betwixt them. The great, component parts of the one will, no doubt, be made, very faithfully, to represent and adumbrate those of the other. This hath been executed with great art and diligence.

1. The temple, we observed, was erected on the banks of a river. This site was not only proper, for the reason already mentioned, but 6 also,

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also, for the further convenience of instituting public games, the ordinary attendants of the confecration of temples. These were generally, as in the case of the Olympic, and others, celebrated on the banks of rivers.

Illi victor ego, et Tyrio conspectus in ostro, Centum quadrijugos agitabo ad flumina currus. Cuncta mibi, Alpheum linquens lucosque Molorchi, Cursibus et crudo decernet Graecia caestu.

To fee the propriety of the figure in this place, the reader needs only be reminded of the book of games in the Aeneid, which was purposely introduced in honour of the emperor, and not, as is commonly thought, for a mere trial of skill between the poet and his master. The emperor was passionately fond of these sports, and was even the author, or restorer, of one of them. It is not to be doubted, that he alludes also to the quinquennial games, actually celebrated, in honour of his temples, through many parts of the empire. And this the poet undertakes in the civil office of VICTOR.

2. What follows is in the religious office of PRIEST. For it is to be noted, that, in assuming this double character, which the decorum of the solemnities, here recounted, prescribed, the poet has an eye to the political design of the Aeneis, which was to do honour to Caesar, in Vol. II.

either capacity of a civil and religious personage; both being essential to the idea of the PERFECT LEGISLATOR, whose office and character (as an eminent critic hath lately shewn us [d], it was his purpose, in this immortal work, to adorn and recommend. The account of his facerdotal functions is delivered in these words:

Ipse caput tonsae foliis ornatus olivae
Dona feram. Jam nunc solemnes ducere pompas
Ad delubra juvat, caesosque videre juvencos;
Vel scena ut versis discedat frontibus, utque
Pur purea intexti tollant aulaea Britanni.

The imagery in this place cannot be understood, without reflecting on the customary form and disposition of the pagan temples. Delubrum, or delubra, for either number is used indifferently, denotes the shrine, or fanctuary, wherein the statue of the presiding god was placed. This was in the center of the building. Exactly before the delubrum, and at no great distance from it, was the ALTAR. Further, the shrine, or delubrum, was inclosed and shut up on all sides by doors of curious carved work, and ductile veils, embellished by the rich embroidery of slowers, animals, or human figures. This being observed, the progress of the imagery before us will be this. The procession

[[]d] DIV. LEG. vol. i. B. ii. S. 4.

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ad delubra, or shrine: the facrifice on the altars. erected before it: and, lastly, the painted, or rather wrought feenery of the purple veils, inclosing the image, which were ornamented, and feemed to be fuftained, or held up by the figures of inwoven Britons. The meaning of all which is, that the poet would proceed to the celebration of Caefar's praise in all the gradual, solemn preparation of poetic pomp: that he would render the most grateful offerings to his divinity in those occasional episodes, which he should confecrate to his more immediate honour; and, finally, that he would provide the richest texture of his fancy, for a covering to that admired image of his virtues, which was to make the fovereign pride and glory of his poem. The choice of the inwoven Britons, for the support of his veilis well accounted for by those who tell us, that: Augustus was proud to have a number of these to ferve about him in quality of flaves.

The ornaments of the Doors of this delubrum, on which the sculptor used to lavish all the riches of his art, are next delineated.

In foribus pugnam ex auro solidoque elephanto
Gangaridum faciam, victorisque arma Quirini;
Atque hic undantem bello, magnumque fluentem
Nilum, ac mavali surgentes aere columnas.
Addam urbes Asiae domitas, pulsumque Niphatem,
Fidentemque suga Parthum versisque sagittis;

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Et duo rapta manu diverso ex hoste trophaea, Bisque triumphatas utroque ex littore gentes.

Here the covering of the figure is too thin to hide the literal meaning from the commonest reader, who fees, that the feveral triumphs of Caesar, here recorded in sculpture, are those, which the poet hath taken most pains to finish, and hath occasionally inserted, as it were, in miniature, in feveral places of his poem. Let him only turn to the prophetic speech of Anchises's shade in the vrth, and to the description of the shield in the VIIIth book.

Hitherto we have contemplated the decorations of the fbrine, i. e. fuch as bear a more direct and immediate reference to the honour of Caefar. We are now prefented with a view of the remoter, furrounding ornaments of the temple. These are the illustrious Trojan chiefs, whose story was to furnish the materials, or, more properly, to form the body and case, as it were, of his august structure. They are also connected with the idol deity of the place by the closest ties of relationship, the Julian family affecting to derive its pedigree from this proud original. The poet then, in his arrangement of these additional figures, with admirable judgment, completes and rounds the entire fiction.

Stabunt

Stabunt et Parii lapides, spirantia signa, Assaraci proles, demissaeque ab Jove gentis

Nomina: Trosque parens et Trojae Cynthius auctor.

Nothing now remains but for fame to eternize the glories of what the great architect had, at the expence of so much art and labour, completed; which is predicted in the highest sub-lime of ancient poetry, under the idea of ENVY, whom the poet personalizes, shuddering at the view of such transcendent persection; and tasting, beforehand, the pains of a remediless vexation, strongly pictured in the image of the worst, infernal tortures.

INVIDIA infelix furias amnemque severum Cocyti metuet, tortosque Ixionis angues, Immanemque rotam, et non exuperabile saxum.

Thus have I prefumed, but with a religious awe, to inspect and declare the mysteries of this ideal temple. The attempt after all might have been censured, as prophane, if the great Mystagogue himself, or somebody for him [e], had

[c] In these lines,

Mox tamen ardentes accingar dicere pugnas Caesaris, et nomen famá tot ferre per annos, Tithoni prima quot abest ab origine Caesar.

Which I suspect not to have been from the hand of Virgil. And,

I. On account of some peculiarities in the expression.

1. Accingar is of frequent use in the best authors,

not given us the undoubted key to it. Under this encouragement, I could not withstand the

as joined with an infinitive mood, accingar dicere, I do not remember to have ever feen it. It is often used by Virgil; but, if the several places be consulted, it will always be found with an accusative and preposition, expressed, or understood, as magicas accingier artes, or with an accusative and dative, as accinger set, or, lastly, with an ablative, expressing the instrument, as accingor ferro. LA CERDA, in his notes upon the place, seemed sensible of the objection, and therefore wrote, Graeca locutio: the common, but paltry, shift of learned critics, when they determine, at any rate, to support an ancient reading.

2. Ardentes pugnas, burning battles, founds well enough to a modern ear; but I much doubt, if it would have passed in the times of Virgil. At least, I recollect no such expression in all his works; ardens being constantly joined to a word, denoting a substance of apparent light, beat, or slame, to which the allusion is easy, as ardentes gladios, ardentes oculos, campos armis sublimibus ardentes, and, by an easy metaphor, ardentes bostes; but no where, that I can find, to so abstract a notion, as that of sight. It seems to be to avoid this difficulty, that some have chosen to read ardentis, in the genitive, which yet Servius rejects

as of no authority.

3. But the most glaring note of illegitimacy is in the line,

Tithoni prima quot abest ab origine Caesar.

It has puzzled all the commentators from old Servius

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temptation of disclosing thus much of one of the noblest fictions of antiquity; and the rather,

down to the learned Mr. Martyn, to give any tolerable account of the poet's choice of Tithonus, from whom to derive the ancestry of Augustus, rather than Anchifes, or Affaracus, who were not only more famous. but in the direct line. The pretences of any, or all of them, are too frivolous to make it necessary to spend a thought about them. The instance stands fingle in antiquity; much less is there any thing like it to be found in the Augustan poets.

II. But the phraseology of these lines is the least of my objection. Were it ever so accurate, there is, befides, on the first view, a manifest absurdity in the subject-matter of them. For would any writer, of but common skill in the art of composition, close a long and elaborate allegory, the principal grace of which confifts in its very mystery, with a cold and formal explanation of it? or would he pay fo poor a compliment to his patron, as to suppose his fagacity wanted the affistance of this additional triplet to lead him into the true meaning? Nothing can be more abhorrent from the usual address and artifice of Virgil's manner. Or,

III. Were the fubject-matter itself passable, yet, how, in defiance of all the laws of disposition, came it to be forced in here? Let the reader turn to the paffage, and he will foon perceive, that this could never be the place for it. The allegory being concluded, the poet returns to his subject, which is proposed in the

fix following lines:

Intereà Dryadum Sylvas, sa'tusque sequamur Intactos, tua, Maecenas, baud mollia juffa;

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as the propriety of allegoric composition, which made the distinguished pride of ancient poetry,

Te fine nil altum mens inchoat: en age segnes Rumpe moras: vocat ingenti clamore Cithaeron, Taygetique canes, domitrixque Epidaurus equorum, Et vox assensu nemorum ingeminata remugit.

Would now any one expect, that the poet, after having conducted the reader, thus respectfully, to the very threshold of his subject, should immediately run away again to the point from which he had set out, and this on so needless an errand, as the letting him into the secret of his allegory?

But this inserted triplet agrees as ill with what follows, as with what precedes it. For how abrupt is the transition, and unlike the delicate connexion, so studioully contrived by the Augustan poets, from

Tithoni prima quot abest ab origine Caesar,

to

Seu quis Olympiacae miratus praemia palmae, &c. When, omit but these interpolated lines, and see how gracefully, and by how natural a succession of ideas, the poet slides into the main of his subject:

Intereà Dryadum fylvas saltusque sequamur Intactos—

Te fine nil-

Rumpe moras: vocat ingenti clamore Cithaeron Tagetique canes, domitrixque Epidaurus EQUORUM, Et vox assensu nemorum ingeminata REMUGIT.

Seu quis Olympiacae miratus praemia palmae Pascit EQUOS; seu quis fortes ad aratra JUVENCOS.

On the whole, I have not the least doubt, that the lines before us are the spurious offspring of some later

feems

feems but little known or attended to by the modern professors of this fine art.

17. NIL ORITURUM ALIAS, NIL ORTUM TALE FATENTES.] Il n'est impossible, says M. DE BALZAC, in that pussed, declamatory rhapsody, entitled, LE PRINCE, de resister au mouvement

poet; if indeed the writer of them deferve that name: for, whoever he was, he is fo far from partaking of the original spirit of Virgil, that at most he appears to have been but a fervile and paltry mimic of Ovid; from the opening of whose Metamorphoses the defign was clearly taken. The turn of the thought is evidently the fame in both, and even the expression. Mutatas dicere formas is echoed by ardentes dicere pugnas: dicere fort animus, is, by an affected improvement, accingar dicere: and Tithoni prima ab origine is almost literally the same as primaque ab origine mundi. For the infertion of these lines in this place, I leave it to the curious to conjecture of it as they may; but in the mean time, must esteem the office of the true critic to be fo far refembling that of the poet himself, as, within fome proper limitations, to justify the bonest liberty here taken.

Cum tabulis animum censoris sumet honesti;
Audebit quaecunque parum splendoris habebunt
Et sine pondere erunt, et honore indigna seruntur,
VERBA MOVERE LOCO; QUAMVIS INVIVA RECEDANT,

ET VERSENTUR ADHUC INTRA PENETRALIA VESTAE, [2 Bp. ii. 110.

interieur,

interieur, qui me pousse. Je ne scaurois m'empecher de parler du Roy, et de sa vertu; de crier à tous les princes, que c'est l'exemple, qu'ils doivent suivre; DE DEMANDER A TOUS LES PEUPLES, ET A TOUS LES AGES, S'ILS ONT JAMAIS RIEN VEU DE SEMBLABLE. This was spoken of a king of France, who, it will be owned, had his virtues. But they were the virtues of the man, and not of the prince. This, however, was a diftinction, which the eloquent encomiast was not aware of, or, to fpeak more truly, his bufiness required him to overlook. For the whole elogy is worth peruling, as it affords a striking proof of the uniform genius of flattery, which, alike under all circumstances, and indifferent to all characters, can hold the fame language of the weakest, as the ablest of princes, of Louis LE JUSTE, and CAESAR OCTAVIANUS AUGUSTUS.

23. SIC FAUTOR VETERUM, &c. to line 28.] The folly, here fatirized, is common enough in all countries, and extends to all arts. It was just the same preposterous affectation of venerating antiquity, which put the connoisseurs in painting, under the emperors, on crying up the simple and rude sketches of Aglaophon and Polygnotus, above the exquisite and finished pictures of Parrhasius and Zeuxis. The account is given by Quincilian, who, in his censure

censure of this absurdity, points to the undoubted fource of it. His words are these: " Primi quorum quidem opera non vetustatis " modò gratià visenda sunt, clari pictores suisse "dicuntur Polygnotus et Aglaophon; quorum " fimplex color tam fui studiosos adhuc habet, " ut illa propè rudia ac velut futurae mox artis " primordia, maximis, qui post eos extiterunt, " auctoribus praeserantur, PROPRIO OUODAM " INTELLIGENDI (ut mea fert opinio) AM-" BITU." [L. xii. c. 10.] The lover of painting must be the more surprized at this strange preference, when he is told, that Aglaophon, at leaft, had the use of only one single colour; whereas Parrhasius and Zeuxis, who are amongst the maximi autores, here glanced at, not only employed different colours, but were exceedingly eminent, the one of them for correct drawing, and the delicacy of his outline; the other, for his invention of that great secret of the chiaro oscuro. " Post Zeuxis et Parrhasius: quorum prior " LUMINUM UMBRARUMQUE INVENISSE RA-"TIONEM, fecundus, EXAMINASSE SUBTILIUS " LINEAS DICITUR." [Ibid.]

28. SI, QUIA GRAIORUM SUNT ANTIQUIS-SIMA QUAEQUE SCRIPTA vel OPTIMA, &c.] The common interpretation of this place supposes the poet to admit the most ancient of the Greek Greek writings to be the best. Which were even contrary to all experience and common fense, and is directly confuted by the history of the Greek learning. What he allows is, the superiority of the oldest Greek writings extant; which is a very different thing. The turn of his argument confines us to this fense. For he would fhew the folly of concluding the fame of the old Roman writers, on their first rude attempts to copy the finished models of Greece, as of the old Greek writers themselves, who were furnished with the means of producing those models by long discipline and cultivation. This appears, certainly, from what follows:

Venimus ad summum fortunae: pingimus atque Pfallimus et luctamur Achivis doctius unctis.

The defign of which hath been entirely overlooked. For it hath been taken only for a general expression of falschood and absurdity, of just the fame import as the proverbial line,

Nil intra est olea, nil extra est in nuce duri.

Whereas it was designedly pitched upon to convey a particular illustration of the very absurdity in question, and to shew the maintainers of it, from the nature of things, how fenfeless their position was. It is to this purpose: " As well " it may be pretended, that we Romans surpass " the Greeks in the arts of painting, music, and

" the exercises of the palaestra, which yet it is "confessed we do not, as that our old writers " furpass the modern. The absurdity, in either " cafe, is the fame. For, as the Greeks, who " had long devoted themselves, with great and " continued application, to the practice of these " arts (which is the force of the epithet UNCTI. " here given them) must, for that reason, carry "the prize from the Romans, who have taken " very little pains about them; fo, the modern "Romans, who have for a long time been " fludying the arts of poetry and composition, must " needs excel the old Roman writers, who had " little or no acquaintance with those arts, and " had been trained, by no previous discipline, " to the exercise of them."

The conciseness of the expression made it necessary to open the poet's sense at large. We now see that his intention, in these two lines, was to expose, in the way of argumentative illustration, the ground of that absurdity, which the preceding verses had represented as, at first sight, so shocking to common sense.

33. UNCTIS.] This is by no means a general, unmeaning epithet: but is beautifully chosen to express the unwearied assiduity of the Greek artists. For, the practice of anointing being effential to their agonistic trials, the poet

elegantly puts the attending circumflance for the thing itself. And so, in speaking of them, as UNCTI, he does the same, as if he had called them " the industrious, or exercifing Greeks;" which was the very idea his argument required him to fuggest to us.

43.-Honeste.] Expressing the credit such a piece was held in, as had the fortune to be ranked inter veteres, agreeably to what he faid above-PERFECTOS veteresque, line 37-andvetus atque PRORUS, line 30: which affords a fresh presumption in favour of Dr. Bentley's conjecture on line 41, where, instead of veteres poetas, he would read,

Inter quos referendus erit ? veterefne PROBOSQUE, An quos, &c.

a sen selt mano et vrafto

54. ADEO SANCTUM EST VETUS OMNE POEMA. The reader is not to suppose, that Horace, in this ridicule of the foolish adorers of antiquity, intended any contempt of the old Roman poets; who, as the old writers in every country, abound in ftrong fense, vigorous expression, and the truest representation of life and manners. His quarrel is only with the critic:

Qui redit in faftos et virtutem aestimat annis.

An affectation, which for its folly, if it had not

too apparently fprung from a worse principle, deserved to be laughed at.

For the rest, he every where discovers a candid and just esteem of their earlier writers; as may be seen from many places in this very epistle; but more especially from that severe censure in 1 S. x. 17. (which hath more of acrimony in it than he usually allows to his satire) when, in speaking of the writers of the old comedy, he adds,

Quos neque pulcher

Hermogenes unquam legit, neque simius iste Nil praeter Caloum et doctus cantare Catullum.

With all his zeal for correct writing, he was not, we see, of the humour of that delicate fort, who are for burning their old poets; and, to be well with women and court-critics, confine their reading and admiration to the innocent fing-fong of some soft and fashionable rhymer, whose utter insipidity is a thousand times more insufferable than any barbarism.

56. PACUVIUS DOCTI FAMAM SENIS, ACCIUS ALTI.] The epithet doctus, here applied to the tragic poet, Pacuvius, is, I believe, fometimes mitunderstood, though the opposition to altus clearly determines the sense. For, as this last word expresses the sublime of sentiment and expression, which comes from nature, so the former word must needs be interpreted of that exactness.

exactness in both, or at least of that skill in the conduct of the scene (the proper learning of a dramatic poet) which is the refult of art.

The Latin word dollus is indeed fomewhat ambiguous: but we are chiefly misled by the English word, learned, by which we translate it, and by which, in general use, is meant, rather extensive reading, and what we call erudition, than a profound skill in the rules and principles of any art. But this last is frequently the fense of the Latin term doctus, as we may fee from its application, in the best classics writers, to other, befides the literary professions. Thus, to omit other inflances, we find it applied very often in Horace himfelf. It is applied to a finging-girl-doctae psallere Chiaein one of his Odes, l. iv. 13. It is applied to feveral mechanic arts in this epiftle-" doelius "Achivis pingimus atque pfallimus et luctamur;" It is even applied, absolutely, to the player Roscius-dollus Roscius, in line 82, where his skill in acting could only be intended by it. It is, alfo, in this fense, that he calls his imitator, doctus, i. e. skilled and knowing in his art, A. P. line 319. Nay, it is precisely in this sense that Quinctilian uses the word, when he characterizes this very Pacuvius-Pacuvium videri doctiorem, qui effe docti affectant, volunt [1. x. c. 1.] i. e. they, who affect to be thought knowing

ing in the rules of dramatic writing, give this praise to Pacuvius. The expression is so put, as if Quinctilian intended a censure of these critics; because this pretence to dramatic art, and the strict imitation of the Greek poets, was grown, in his time, and long before it, into a degree of pedantry and affectation; no other merit, but this of docti, being of any significancy, in their account. There is no reason to think that Quinctilian meant to infinuate the poet's want of this merit, or his own contempt of it: though he might think, and with reason, that too much stress had been laid upon it by some men.

It is in the same manner that one of our own poets has been characterized; and the application of this term to him will shew the force of it, still more clearly.

In Mr. Pope's fine imitation of this epiftle,

In all debates, where critics bear a part,
Not one but nods and talks of Jonson's art—

One fees, then, how Mr. Pope understood the dolli, of Horace. But our Milton applies the word learned itself, and in the Latin sense of it, to Jonson—

When Jonson's learned fock is on-

For what is this learning? Indisputably, his dramatic learning, his skill in the scene, and his Vol. II.

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observance of the ancient rules and practice. For, though Jonson was indeed learned, in every sense; it is the learning of his profession, as a comic artist, for which he is here celebrated.

The Latin substantive, dollring, is used with the same latitude, as the adjective, dollus. It fometimes fignifies the peculiar fort of learning, under confideration; though fometimes again it fignifies learning, or erudition, at large. It is used in the former sense by Cicero, when he observes of the satires of Lucilius, that they were remarkable for their wit and pleafantry, not for their learning-doctrina mediocris. So that there is no contradiction in this judgment, as is commonly thought, to that of Quinctilian, who declares roundly-eruditio in eo mira-For, though dostrina and eruditio be fometimes convertible terms, they are not fo here. The learning Cicero speaks of in Lucilius, as being but moderate, is his learning, or skill, in the art of writing and composition.-That this was the whole purport of Cicero's observation, any one may fee by turning to the place where it occurs, in the proeme to his first book DE FI-NIBUS.

59. VINCERE CAECILIUS GRAVITATE, TE-RENTIUS ARTE.] It should be observed, that the ge

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the judgment, here passed [from line 55 to 60] on the most celebrated Roman writers, being only a representation of the popular opinion, not of the poet's own, the commendations given to them are deserved, or otherwise, just as it chances.

Interdum volgus rectum videt, est ubi peccat.

To give an instance of this in the line before us.

A critic of unquestioned authority acquaints us, wherein the real distinct merit of these two dramatic writers confifts. "In ARGUMENTIS. " Caecilius palmam poscit; in ETHESIN, TE-" RENTIUS." [Varro.] Now by gravitate, as applied to Caecilius, we may properly enough understand the grave and affecting cast of his comedy; which is further confirmed by what the fame critic elsewhere observes of him: " PATHE "Trabea, Attilius, et CAECILIUS facile move-" runt." But Terence's characteristic of painting the manners, which is, plainly, the right interpretation of Varro's ETHESIN, is not fo fignificantly expressed by the attribute arte, here given to him. The word indeed is of large and general import, and may admit of various fenses; but, being here applied to a dramatic writer, it most naturally and properly denotes the peculiar art of his profession, that is, the artificial contexture of the plat. And this, I doubt not, was the

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very praise, the town-critics of Horace's time intended to bestow on this poet. The matter is easily explained.

The fimplicity, and exact unity of the plots in the Greek comedies would be, of course, uninteresting to a people, not thoroughly instructed in the genuine beauties of the drama. had too thin a contexture to fatisfy the gross and lumpish taste of a Roman auditory. The Latin poets, therefore, bethought themselves of combining two stories into one. And this, which is what we call the double plot, affording the opportunity of more incidents, and a greater variety of allion, was perfectly fuited to their apprehenfions. But, of all the Latin comedians, Terence appears to have practifed this fecret most affiduously: at leaft, as may be concluded from what remains of them. Plautus hath very frequently fingle plots, which he was enabled to support by, what was natural to him, a force of buffoon pleafantry. Terense, whose genius lay another way, or whose taste was abhorrent from such ribaldry, had recourse to the other expedient of double plots. And this, I suppose, is what gained him the popular reputation of being the most artificial writer for the stage. The HECYRA is the only one of his comedies, of the true ancient caft. And we know how it came off in the representation. That ill-success, and the simplicity

city of its conduct have continued to draw upon it the same unfavourable treatment from the critics, to this day; who constantly speak of it, as much inferior to the rest; whereas, for the genuine beauty of dramatic design, and the observance, after the ancient Greek manner, of the nice dependency and coherence of the fable throughout, it is, indisputably, to every reader of true taste, the most masterly and exquisite of the whole collection.

63. INTERDUM VOLGUS RECTUM VIDET: EST UBI PECCAT.] The capricious levity of popular opinion hath been noted even to a proverb. And yet it is this, which, after all, fixes the fate of authors. This feemingly odd phaenomenon I would thus account for.

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What is usually complimented with the high and reverend appellation of public judgment is, in any fingle instance, but the repetition or echo, for the most part eagerly catched, and strongly reverberated on all sides, of a few leading voices, which have happened to gain the considence, and so direct the cry, of the public. But (as, in fact, it too often falls out) this prerogative of the few may be abused to the prejudice of the many. The partialities of friendship, the fashionableness of the writer, his compliance with the reigning taste, the lucky concurrence of time

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and opportunity, the cabal of a party, nay, the very freaks of whim and caprice; these, or any of them, as occasion serves, can support the dullest, as the opposite disadvantages can depress the nobleft, performance; and give a currency or neglect to either, far beyond what the genuine character of each demands. Hence the public voice, which is but the aggregate of these corrupt judgments, infinitely multiplied, is, with the wife, at such a juncture, deservedly of little esteem. Yet, in a succession of such judgments, delivered at different times, and by different fets or juntos of these sovereign arbiters of the fate of authors, the public opinion naturally gets clear of these accidental corruptions. Every fresh succession shakes off some; till, by degrees, the work is feen in its proper form, unsupported of every other recommendation, than what its native inherent excellence bestows upon it. Then, and not till then, the voice of the people becomes facred; after which it foon advances into divinity, before which all ages must fall down and worship. For now reason alone, without her corrupt affeffors, takes the chair. And her fentence, when once promulgated, and authorized by the general voice, fixes the unalterable doom of authors. ΟΛΩΣ ΚΑΛΑ NO-ΜΙΖΕ ΤΎΗ ΚΑΙ ΑΛΗΘΙΝΑ, ΤΑ ΔΙΑΠΑΝ-ΤΟΣ ΑΡΕΣΚΟΝΤΑ ΚΑΙ ΠΑΣΙΝ. [Longinus, § vii.]

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§ vii.] And the reason follows, agreeably to the account here given. Όταν γὰρ τοῖς ἀπὸ διαφόρων ΕΠΙΤΗΔΕΥΜΑΤΩΝ, ΒΙΩΝ, ΖΗΛΩΝ, ΗΛΙΚΙΩΝ, λόγων, ἔν τι κὰ ταυθὸν ἄμα ωτρὶ των αυτών ἄπασι δοκῆ, τοθ ἡ ἐξ ἀσυμφώνων ὡς κρίσις κὰ συίκατάθεσις τὴν ἐπὶ τῷ Θαυμαζομένῳ ΠΙΣΤΙΝ ΙΣΧΥΡΑΝ ΛΑΜΒΑΝΕΙ ΚΑΙ ΑΝΑΜΦΙΛΕΚΤΟΝ. [Ibid.]

This is the true account of popular fame, which, while it well explains the ground of the poet's aphorism, suggests an obvious remark, but very mortifying to every candidate of literary glory. It is, that, whether he succeeds in his endeavours after public applause, or not, fame is equally out of his reach, and, as the moral poet teaches, a thing beyond him, before his death, on either supposition. For at the very time, that this bewitching music is sounding in his ears, he can never be sure, if, instead of the divine consentient harmony of a just praise, it be not only the discordant din and clamour of ignorance or prepossession.

If there be any exception to this melancholy truth, it must be in the case of some uncommon genius, whose superior power breaks through all impediments in his road to same, and sorces applause even from those very prejudices, that would obstruct his career to it.

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It was the rare felicity of the poet, just mentioned, to receive, in his life-time, this fure and pleasing augury of immortality.

81. INGENIIS NON ILLE FAVET, &c. 7 MAL-HERBE was to the French, pretty much what HORACE had been to the Latin, poetry. Thefe great writers had, each of them, rescued the lyric muse of their country out of the rude, ungracious hands of their old poets. And, as their talents of a good ear, elegant judgment, and correct expression, were the same, they presented her to the public in all the air and grace, and yet feverity, of beauty, of which her form was fusceptible. Their merits and pretenfions being thus far refembling, the reader may not be incurious to know the fate and fortune of each. Horace hath very frankly told us, what befel himself from the malevolent and low passions of his countrymen. Malberbe did not come off, with the wits and critics of his time, much better; as we learn from a learned perfon, who hath very warmly recommended his writings to the public. Speaking of the envy, which purfued him in his profe-works; but, fays he, " comme " il faisoit une particuliere profession de la poesse, " c'est en cette qualité qu'il a de plus severes " censeurs, et receu des injustices plus signalées. " Mais il me semble que je sermerai la bouche " à ceux,

" à ceux, qui le blament, quand je leur aurai "monstré, que sa façon d'escrire est excellente,

" quoiqu'elle s'eloigne un peu de celle des nos

" ANCIENS POETES, QU'ILS LOUENT PLUSTOT

" PAR UN DEGOUST DES CHOSES PRESENTES,

" QUE PAR LES SENTIMENTS D'UNE VERI-

sur'LES OEUVRES DE M. MALHERBE.]

97. SUSPENDIT MENTEM VULTUMQUE.] The expression hath great elegance, and is not liable to the imputation of barsh, or improper construction. For suspendit is not taken, with regard either to mentem or vultum, in its literal, but sigurative, signification; and, thus, it becomes, in one and the same sense, applicable to both.

Otherwise, this way of coupling two substantives to a verb, which does not, in strict grammatical usage, govern both; or, if it doth, must needs be construed in different senses; hath given just offence to the best critics.

Mr. Pope censures a passage of this kind, in the Iliad, with severity; and thinks the taste of the antients was, in general, too good for those

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Mr. Addison is persectly of the same mind, as appears from his criticism on that line in

[f] B. ix. 641.

Ovid,

Ovid, Consiliis, non curribus utere nostris. "This " way of joining, fays he, two fuch different "ideas as chariot and counsel to the same verb. " is mightily used by Ovid; but is a very low " kind of wit, and has always in it a mixture of " pun; because the verb must be taken in a dif-" ferent sense, when it is joined with one of the "things, from what it has in conjunction with "the other. Thus, in the end of this flory, he tells you, that Jupiter flung a thunberbolt at 44 Phaëton: pariterque animaque rotisque expulit aurigam: where he makes a forced piece of Latin (anima expulit aurigam) that he may couple the foul and the wheels to the fame " verb [g]."

Thefe, the reader will think, are pretty good authorities. For, in matters of tafte, I know of none, that more deserve to be regarded. The mere verbal critic, one would think, should be cautious, how he opposed himself to them. And yet a very learned Dutchman, who has taken great pains in elucidating an old Greek loveflory, which, with its more passionate admirers, may, perhaps, pass for the MARIANNE of antiquity, hath not fcrupled to censure this decision of theirs very sharply [b].

[g] Notes on the flory of Phaiton, line 23.

[b] JACOBI PHILIPPI D'ORVILLE Animadverfiones in CHARIT, APHROD. lib. iv. c. 4.

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Having transcribed the censure of Mr. Pope. who, indeed somewhat too hastily, suspects the line in Homer for an interpolation, our critic fastens upon him directly. EN COR ZENODOTI, EN IECUR CRATETIS! But foul language and fair criticism are different things; and what he offers of the latter rather accounts for than justifies the former. All he says on the subject, is in the good old way of authorities, which he diligently rakes together out of every corner of Greek and Roman antiquity. From all these he concludes, as he thinks, irrefiftibly, not that the passage in question might be genuine (for that few would dispute with him) but that the kind of expression itself is a real beauty. Bona elocution est: bonesta figura. Though, to the praise of his discretion be it remembered, he does not even venture on this affertion, without his usual fupport of precedent. And, for want of a better, he takes up with old Servius. For fo, it feems, this grammarian hath declared himfelf, with respect to some expressions of the same kind in Virgil.

But let him make the best of his authorities. And, when he has done that, I shall take the liberty to affure him, that the persons, he contends against, do not think themselves in the least concerned with them. For, though he believes it an undeniable maxim, Critici non esse inquirere, utrum relle autor quid scripscrit, sed an amnino

omnino fic scripserit [i]: yet, in the case before us, he must not be surprized, if others do not so conceive of it.

Indeed, where the critic would defend the authenticity of a word or expression, the way of precedent is, doubtless, the very best, that common sense allows to be taken. For the evidence of fast, at once, bears down all suspicion of corruption or interpolation. Again; if the elegance of single words (or of entire phrases, where the suspicion turns on the oddity or uncommons of the construction, only) be the matter in dispute, full and precise authorities must decide it. For elegance, here, means nothing else but the practice of the best writers. And thus far I would join issue with the learned censurer; and should think he did well in prescribing this rule to himself in the correction of approved ancient authors.

But what have these cases to do with the point in question? The objection is made, not to words, which alone are capable of being justified by authority, but to things, which must ever be what they are, in spite of it. This mode of writing is shewn to be abundantly desective, for reasons taken from the nature of our ideas, and the end and genius of the nobler forms of composition. And what is it to tell us, that great writers have overlooked or neglected them?

[i] Ibid. vol. ii. p. 325.

i. In our customary train of thinking, the mind is carried along, in succession, from one clear and diffinct idea to another. Or, if the attention ' be at once employed on two fenfes, there is ever fuch a close and near analogy betwixt them, that the perceptive faculty, eafily, and almost inflantaneously, passing from the one to the other, is not divided in its regards betwixt them, but even feems to itself to confider them, as one: as is the case with metaphor; and, universally, with all the just forms of allusion. The union between the literal and figurative fense is fo ffrict. that they run together in the imagination; and the effect of the figure is only to let in fresh light and luftre on the literal meaning. But now, when two different, unconnected ideas are obtruded at the same time upon us, the mind fuffers a kind of violence and diffraction, and is thereby put out of that natural state, in which it fo much delights. To take the learned writer's inftance from Polybius: EATIIAA & KEIPA ΠΡΟΣΛΑΜΒΑΝΕΙΝ. How different is the idea of colletting forces, and of that att of the mind, which we call taking courage! These two perceptions are not only diffinct from each other. but totally unconnected by any natural bond of relationship betwixt them. And yet the word ΠΡΟΣΛΑΜΒΑΝΕΙΝ must be seen in this double view. view, before we can take the full meaning of the historian.

2. This conjunction of unrelated ideas, by the means of a common term, agrees as ill to the end and genius of the writer's composition, as the natural bent and constitution of the mind. For the question is only about the greater poetry, which addresses itself to the Passions, or IMAGINATION. And, in either case, this play of words, which Mr. Pope condemns, must be highly out of season.

When we are necessitated, as it were, to look different ways, and actually to contemplate two unconnected fignifications of the fame word, before we can thoroughly comprehend its purpose; the mind is more amused by this fanciful conjunction of ideas, than is confiftent with the artless, undefigning simplicity of passion. It disturbs and interrupts the flow of affection, by presenting this disparted image to the fancy. Again; where fancy itself is folely addressed, as in the nobler descriptive species, this arbitrary asfemblage of ideas is not less improper. For the poet's business is now, to astonish or enterrain the mind with a fuccession of great or beautiful images. And the intervention of this juggler's trick diverts the thought from contemplating its proper scenery. We should be admiring some glorious representation of nature, and are stopped, on a sudden, to observe the writer's art, whofe

whose ingenuity can fetch, out of one word, two such foreign and discrepant meanings.

In the lighter forms of poetry indeed, and more especially in the burlesque epic, this affectation has its place; as in that line of Mr. Pope, quoted by this critic;

fometimes counsel takes, and sometimes tea.

For, 1. The writer's intention is here, not to affect the passions, or transport the fancy, but folely to divert and amuse. And to such end this species of trifling is very apposite. 2. The manner, which the burlefque epic takes to divert. is by confounding great things with small. A mode of speech then, which favours such confusion. is directly to its purpose. 3. This poem is, by its nature, fatirical, and, like the old comedy, delights in exposing the faults and vices of composition. So that the expression is here properly employed (and this was, perhaps, the first view of the writer) to ridicule the use of it in grave works. If M. D'Orville then could feriously defign to confute Mr. Pope's criticism by his own practice in that line of the Rape of the Lock. he has only thewn, that he does not, in the leaft, comprehend the real genius of this poem. But to return:

There is, as appears to me, but one case, in which this double sense of words can be admitted

in the more folemn forms of poetry. It is, when, befides the plain literal meaning, which the context demands, the mind is carried forward to fome more illustrious and important object. We have an inftance in the famous line of Virgil,

Attollens humeris famamque et fata nepotum.

But this is fo far from contradicting, that it furthers the writer's proper intention. We are not called off from the fubject-matter to the obfervation of a conceit, but to the admiration of kindred fublime conceptions. For even here, it is to be observed, there is always required some previous dependency and relationship, though not extremely obvious, in the natures of the things themselves, whereon to ground and juftify the analogy. Otherwise, the intention of the double fonse is perfectly inexcusable.

But the instance from Virgil, as we have seen it explained (and for the first time) by a great critic [i], is fo curious, that I shall be allowed to enlarge a little upon it : and the rather, as Virgil's practice in this inftance will let us into the true fecret of conducting these double fenfes.

The comment of Servius on this line is remarkable: " Hunc versum notant critici, " quasi superfluè et inutiliter additum, nec con-

[i] D. L. vol. ii. p. 644.

" venientem

" venientem gravitati ejus, namque est magis " neotericus." Mr. Addison conceived of it in the fame manner, when he faid, " This was the only witty line in the Eneis;" meaning fuch a line as Ovid would have written. We fee the opinion which these Critics entertained of the double fense, in general, in the greater Poetry. They effeemed it a wanton play of fancy, mifbecoming the dignity of the writer's work, and the gravity of his character. They took it, in fhort, for a mere modern flourish, totally different from the pure unaffected manner of genuine antiquity. And thus far they unquestionably judged right. Their defect was in not feeing that the wie of it, as here employed by the Poet. was an exception to the general rule. But to have feen this was not, perhaps, to be expected even from these Critics.

However, from this want of penetration arose a difficulty in determining whether to read, Fasta or Fata Nepotum. And, as we now understand that Servius and his Critics were utter strangers to Virgil's noble idea, it is no wonder they could not resolve it. But the latter is the Poet's own word. He considered this shield of celestial make as a kind of Palladium, like the Ancile, which sell from Heaven, and used to be carried in procession on the shoulders of the Salii. "Quid de scutis, tays Lactantius, jam Vol. II.

vetustate putridis dicam? Quæ cum portant, Des ipsos se gestare Humeris suis arbitran-

" tur." [Div. Inft. l. i. c. 21.]

Virgil, in a fine flight of imagination, alludes to this venerable ceremony, comparing, as it were, the shield of his Hero to the facred Ancile; and in conformity to the practice in that facred procession represents his Hero in the priestly office of Religion,

This idea then of the facred shield, the guard and glory of Rome, and on which, in this advanced situation, depended the same and fortune of his country, the poet, with extreme elegance and sublimity, transfers to the shield which guarded their great progenitor, while he was laying the first soundations of the Roman Empire.

But to return to the subject before us. What has been said of the impropriety of double sense, holds of the construction of a single term in two senses, even though its authorized usage may equally admit both. So that I cannot be of a mind with the learned critic's wife men [k]; who acknowledge an extreme elegance in this form,

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[[]k] At inspiciamus porrd, quid alii, quibus correctius sapit, de hoc loquendi modo CENSUERINT.
Agnoscunt enim, etc. p. 299.

when the governing verb equally corresponds to the two substantives. But when it properly can be applied but to one of them, and with some force and firaining only to the fecond, as commonly happens with the application of one verb to two Substantives, it then degenerates, as Mr. Addition observes, into a mere quibble, and is utterly incompatible with the graver forms of composition. And for this we have the concurrent authority of the cordati themselves, who readily admit, duram admodum et xalaxonsixwiegan firi orationem, fi verbum boc ab alterutro abborreat [1]. Without fostening matters, besides the former absurdity of a second sense, we are now indebted to a forced and barbarous confirmation for any fecond fenfe at all.

But surely this venerable bench of critics, to whom our censurer thinks fit to make his so-leum appeal, were not aware of the imprudence of this concession. For why, if one may pressume to ask, is the latter use of this figure condemned, but for reasons, which shew the manifest absurdity of the thing, however countenanced by authorities? And is not this the case of the sormer? Or, is the transgression of the standing rules of good sense, in the judgment of these cen-fors, a more pardonable crime in a writer, than of sommon usege or grammar?

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After all, fince he lays fo great stress on his authorities, it may not be amiss to confider the

proper force of them.

The form of speaking under consideration has been censured as a trifling, affected witticism, This censure he hopes entirely to elude, by shewing it was in use, more especially among two forts of persons, the least likely to be infected with wrong tafte, the oldest, that is to fay, the simplest; and the most refined writers. In fhort, he thinks to ftop all mouths, by alledging instances from Homer and Virgil.

But what if Homer and Virgil in the few examples of this kind to be met with in their writings have erred? And, which is more, what if that very fimplicity on the one hand, and refinement on the other, which he builds so much upon, can be shewn to be the natural and almost necessary occasions of their falling into such errors? This, I am perfuaded, was the truth of the case. For,

1. In the simpler ages of learning, when, as vet, composition is not turned into an art, but every writer, especially of vehement and impetuous genius, is contented to put down his first thoughts, and, for their expression, takes up with the most obvious words and phrases that prefent themselves to him, this improper construction will not be unfrequent. For the writer,

writer, who is not knowing enough to take offence at these niceties, having an immediate occasion to express two things, and finding one word, which, in common usage, at least with a little straining, extends to both, he looks no further, but, as suspecting no fault, employs it without scruple. And I am the more confirmed in this account, from observing, that sometimes, where the governing verb cannot be made to bear this double fense, and yet the meaning of the writer is clear enough from the context, the proper word is altogether omitted. kind are feveral of the modes of speaking, alledged by the writer as inftances of the double fenfe. As in that of Sophocles [m], where Electra, giving orders to Chrysothemis, about the dispofal of the libations, destined for the tomb of her father, delivers herfelf thus,

ΑΛΛ' ἢ ΠΝΟΑΙΣΙΝ, ἢ βαθυσχαφει ΚΟΝΕΙ ΚΡΤΎΟΝ νιν.

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The writer's first intention was to look out for some such verb, as would equally correspond to wroas, and xora but this not occurring, he sets down one, that only agrees to the last, and leaves the other to be understood, or supplied by the reader; as it easily might, the scope of the place necessarily directing him to it. It cannot

[m] Line 437.

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be supposed, that Sophocles designed to say, κρύψον ωνοαις. There is no affinity of sense or sound to lead him to such construction. Again; in that verse of Homer [n],

*IIII · I αερσίποθες, κό ωσικίλα ΤΕΥΧΕ ΕΚΕΙΤΟ, the poet never meant to fay ἴπποι ἔκεινο, but neglectingly left it thus, as trusting the nature of the thing would instruct the reader to supply ἔςασαν, or some such word expressive of the posture required.

Nay, writers of more exactness than these fimple Greek poets have occasionally overlooked fuch inaccuracies: as Cicero [o], who, when more intent on his argument than expression, lets fall this impropriety, Nec vero SUPRA TER-RAM, fed etiam IN INTIMIS EJUS TENEBRIS plurimarum rerum LATET utilitas. It is plain, the writer, conceiving extat, pates, or some such word, to be necessarily suggested by the tenor of his fentence, never troubled himself to go back to insert it. Yet these are brought as examples of the double application of fingle words. The truth is, they are examples of indiligence in the writers, and as fuch, may flew us, how eafily they might fall, for the fame reason, into the impropriety of double fenfes. In those of this class

[1] Iliad, T. 327. [0] N. D. ii. 64.

then

then the impropriety, complained of, is the

effect of mere inattention or careleffness.

2. On the other hand, when this negligent fimplicity of thinking and speaking gives way to the utmost polish and refinement in both, we are then to expect it, for the contrary reason. For the more obvious and natural forms of writing being, now, grown common, are held infipid, and the public tafte demands to be gratified by the feasoning of a more studied and artificial expression. It is not enough to please; the writer must find means to firike and furprize. And hence the antithesis, the remote allusion, and every other mode of affelled eloquence. But of these the first that prevails, is the application of the double sense. For, the general use justifying it, it eafily passes with the reader and writer too, for natural expression; and yet as splitting the attention fuddenly, and at once, on two different views, carries with it all the novelty and furprize, that are wanted. When the public tafte is not, yet, far gone in this refinement, and the writer hath himself the truest taste (which was VIRGIL's case), such affectations will not be very common; or, when they do occur, will, for the most part, be agreeably fostened. As in the instance of retroque pedem cum voce repressit; where, by making voce immediately dependent on the preposition, and remotely G 4

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motely on the verb, he fostens the harshness of the expression, which seems much more tolerable in this form, than if he had put it, pedem vocemque repressit. So again in the line,

Crudeles aras trajectaque pectora ferro Nudavit,

the incongruity of the two senses in nudavit, is the less perceived from its metaphorical application to one of them.

But the defire of pleasing continually, which, in the cirumstances supposed, insensibly grows into a babit, must, of necessity, betray writers of less taste and exactness into the frequent commission of this fault. Which, as Mr. Addison takes notice, was remarkably the case with OVID.

The purpose of all this is to shew, that the use of this form of speaking arose from negligence, or affectation, never from judgment. And such being the obvious, and, it is presumed, true account of the matter, the learned animadvertor on Chariton is lest, as I said, to make the best of his authorities; or, even to enlarge his list of them with the centuries [2] of his good friends, at his leisure. For till he can tell us of a writer, who, neither in his careless nor ambitious humours, is capable of this folly, his accumulated citations, were they more to his pur-

[0] Pag. 397.

pose than many of them are, will do him little service. Unless, perhaps, we are to give up common sense to authority, and pride ourselves on mimicking the very descets of our betters. And even here he need not be at a loss for precedents. For so the disciples of Plato, we are told, in former times, affected to be round-shoulder'd, in compliment to their master; and Aristotle's worshipers, because of a natural impediment in this philosopher's speech, thought it to their credit to turn stammerers. And without doubt, while this sashion prevailed, there were critics, who sound out a je ne sçai quoi in the air of the one party, and in the eloquence of the other.

97. Suspendit picta vultum mentemque tabella.] Horace judiciously describes painting by that peculiar circumstance, which does most honour to this fine art. It is, that, in the hands of a master, it attaches, not the eyes only, but the very soul, to its representation of the human affestions and manners. For it is in contemplating subjects of this kind, that the mind, with a fond and eager attention, hangs on the picture. Other imitations may please, but this warms and transports with passion. And, because whatever addresses itself immediately to the eye affects us most, hence it is, that painting, so employed, becomes more efficacious to express

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express the manners and imprint characters, than poetry itself: or rather, hath the advantages of the best and usefullest species of poetry, the dramatic, when enforced by just action on the ftage.

Quinctilian gives it the like preference to oratory. Speaking of the use of action in an orator, he observes, " Is [gestus] quantum ha-" beat in oratore, momenti; fatis vel ex eo er patet, quod pleraque, etiam citra verba, fignificat. Quippe non manus folum, sed nutus etiam declarant nostram voluntatem, et in mutis pro sermone sunt : et salutatio fre-" quenter fine voce intelligitur atque afficit, et " ex ingressu vultuque perspicitur habitus ani-" morum : et animantium quoque, fermone ca-" rentium, ira, laetitia, adulatio, et oculis et " quibusdam aliis corporis fignis deprehenditur. " Nec mirum, fi ifta, quae tamen aliquo funt " posita motu, tantum in animis valent : quum " pictura, tacens opus, et habitus semper ejusdem, sic it intimos penetret affectus, ut ipfam vim dicendi " nonnunquam superare videatur [p]."

We see then of what importance it is, fince affections of every kind are equally within his power, that the painter apply himself to excite only these, which are subservient to good morals. An importance, of which Aristotle himself (who

was no enthusiast in the fine arts) was so sensible, that he gives it in charge, amongst other political instructions, to the governors of youth, that they allow them to see no other pictures, than such as have this moral aim and tendency; of which kind were more especially those of Polygnorus." [Polit. lib. viii. c. 5.]

For the manner, in which this moral efficacy of picture is brought about, we find it agreeably explained in that conversation of Socrates with Parrhassius in the Memorabilia of Xenophon. The whole may be worth considering.

"PAINTING, faid Socrates, one day, in a. "conversation with the painter Parrhassus, is, I " think, the refemblance or imitation of fen-"fible objects. For you represent in colours, bodies of all forts, hollow and projecting, bright " and obscure, bard and soft, old and new."-" We "do."-" And, when you would draw beautiful pourtraits, fince it is not possible to find any " fingle figure of a man, faultless in all its parts " and of exact proportion; your way is to collect, from feveral, those members or features, which " are most perfect in each, and fo, by joining "them together, to compound one whole body, " completely beautiful."-" That is our me-"thod."-"What then, continued Socrates, and "are you not able, also, to imitate in colours, the " MANNERS:

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"MANNERS; those tendencies and dispositions of the foul, which are benevolent, friendly, and amiable; such as inspire love and affection into the heart, and whose soft insinuations carry with them the power of persuasion?"

"How, replied Parrhasius, can the pencil " imitate that, which hath no proportion, co-"lour, or any other of those properties, you " have been just now enumerating, as the objects " of fight?"-" Why, is it not true, returned "Socrates, that a man fometimes cafts a kind, "fometimes an angry, look on others?"-"It is." -" There must then be something in the eyes " capable of expressing those passions."-"There "must,"-" And is there not a wide difference " between the look of him, who takes part in " the prosperity of a friend, and another, who "Line of fympathizes with him in his forrows?"-"Un-"doubtedly, there is the wideft. The counte-" nance, in the one case, expresses joy, in the " other, concern."-" These affections may then " be represented in picture."-" They may fo." "In like manner, all other dispositions of our " nature, the lofty and the liberal, the abject and " ungenerous, the temperate and the prudent, the " petulant and profligate, these are severally dis-" cernible by the look or attitude: and that, whe-" ther we observe men in action, or at rest. "They " are,"-" And these, therefore, come within es the

"the power of graphical imitation?"—"They do."—"Which then, concluded Socrates, do you believe, men take the greatest pleasure in contemplating; such imitations, as set before them the GOOD, the LOVELY, and the FAIR, or those, which represent the BAD, the HATEFUL, and the UGLY, qualities and affections of humanity?"—"There can be no doubt,

" faid Parrhasius, of their giving the preserence

" to the former." [Lib. iii.]

The conclusion, the philosopher drives at in this conversation, and which the painter readily concedes to him, is what, I am persuaded, every mafter of the art would be willing to act upon. were he at liberty to purfue the bent of his natural genius and inclination. But it unfortunately happens, to the infinite prejudice of this mode of imitation, above all others, that the artist designs not so much what the dignity of his profession requires of him, or the general tafte of those he would most wish for his judges. approves; as what the rich or noble connoisseur, who bespeaks his work, and prescribes the subject, demands. What this has usually been, let the hiftery of ancient and modern painting declare [7]. Yet, confidering its vast power

[q] There having been such wretches, as the painter Plutarch speaks of—Xangiquens, anolasus of partias yuranum weds ardeas. De aud. Poët.

in MORALS, as explained above, one cannot enough lament the ill deftiny of this divine ART; which, from the chafte hand-maid of virtue, hath been debauched, in violence to her nature, to a shameless prostitute of vice, and procures of pleasure. double, "which

117. SCRIBIMUS INDOCTI DOCTIQUE POE-MATA PASSIM.] The DOCTI POETAE have at all times been esteemed by the wife and good, or, rather, have been reverenced, as Plato speaks, अंग्रेह्म क्रबीहेंग्ड मांड ठ०कांबड के मेंग्रह्म र्वणहरू

As for the INDOCTI, we may take their character as drawn by the severe, but juft, pen of our great Milton "Poëtas couidem verè " dictos et diligo et colo et audiendo facpissime " delector-iftos verò verficulorum nugivendos " quis non oderit? quo genere mil fultius se aut vanius aut corruptius, aut mendacius, "Laudant, vituperant, fine delectu, fine dif-" crimine, judicio aut modo, nunc principes, " nunc plebeios, doctos juxta atque indoctos, " probos an improbos perinde habent; prout cantherus, aut spes nummuli, aut fatuus ille " furor inflat ac rapit; congestis undique et " verborum et rerum tot discoloribus ineptiis " tamque putidis, ut laudatum longe praestet "fileri, et pravo, quod aiunt, vivere nafo, " quam fic laudari : vituperatus verò qui fit, ce haud

" haud mediocri fanè honori fibi ducat, se tam " absurdis, tam stolidis nebulonibus displicere." DEF. SECUND. PRO POP. ANG. p. 337. 40. Lond. 1753.

118. HIC ERROR TAMEN, &c.] What follows from hence to line 136, containing an encomium on the office of poets, is one of the leading beauties in the epiftle. Its artifice confifts in this, that, under the cover of a negligent commendation, interspersed with even some traits of pleafantry upon them, it infinuates to the emperor, in the manner the least offensive and oftentatious, the genuine merits, and even facrednels of their character. The whole is a fine instance of that address, which, in delivering rules for this kind of writing, the poet prescribes elfewhere:

Et fermone opus est modo tristi, faepe jocoso, Defendente vicem modo rhetoris atque poetae; Interdum URBANI PARCENTIS YIRIBUS AT-OUE TO DE TO edit to sommeros

EXTENUANTIS EAS CONSULTO. [1 S. x. 14.] This conduct, in the place before us, thews the poet's exquisite knowledge of human nature. For there is no furer method of removing prejudices, and gaining over others to an effect of any thing we would recommend, than by not appearing to lay too great a firefs on it our felves. MISANIA QUANTAS AIRTETES

It is, further, a proof of his intimate acquaintance with the peculiar turn of the great; who, not being forward to think highly of any thing but themselves and their own dignities, are, with difficulty, brought to conceive of other accomplishments, as of much value; and can only be won by the fair and candid address of their apologist, who must be fure not to carry his praises and pretentions too high. It is this art of entering into the characters, prejudices, and expectations of others, and of knowing to fuit our application, prudently, but with innocence, to them, which constitutes what we call A know-LEDGE OF THE WORD. An art, of which the great poet was a confummate mafter, and than which there cannot be a more useful or amiable. quality. Only we must take care not to confound it with that supple, versatile, and intriguing genius, which, taking all shapes, and reflecting all characters, generally passes for it in the commerce of the world, or rather is prized much above it; but, as requiring no other talents in the possessor, than those of a low cunning and corrupt defign, is of all others the most mischievous, worthless, and contemptible character, that infests human life, envilling we would recommend, than be not

INSANIA QUANTAS VIRTUTES HABEAT, SIC COLLIGE:

cotlige.] This apology for poets, and, in them, for poetry itself, though delivered with much apparent negligence and unconcern, yet, if considered, will be found to comprize in it every thing, that any, or all, of its most zealous advocates have ever pretended in its behalf. For it comprehends,

I. [From line 118 to 124,] THE PERSONAL GOOD QUALITIES OF THE POET. Nothing is more infifted on by those, who take upon themfelves the patronage and recommendation of any art, than that it tends to raise in the professor of it all those virtues, which contribute most to his own proper enjoyment, and render him most agreeable to others. Now this, it feems, may be urged, on the fide of poetry, with a peculiar force. For not only the fludy of this art hath a direct tendency to produce a neglect or difregard of worldly bonours and emoluments (from the too eager appetite of which almost all the calamities, as well as the more unfriendly vices, of men arise) but he, whom the benign aspect of the muse hath glanced upon, and deftined for her peculiar fervice, is, by constitution, which is ever the best fecurity, fortified against the attacks of them. Thus his RAPTURES in the enjoyment of his muse make him overlook the common accidents of life: [line 121] be is generous, open, and undefigning, by NATURE: [line 122] Vol. II.

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to which we must not forget to add, that he is temperate, that is to say, poor, by PROFESSION.

VIVIT SILIQUIS ET PANE SECUNDO.

II. [From line 124 to 132.] THE UTILITY OF THE POET TO THE STATE: and this both on a civil and moral account. For, 1. the poets, whom we read in our younger years, and from whom we learn the power of words, and bidden barmony of numbers, that is, as a profound Scotchman teaches, the first and most effential principles of eloquence [r], enable, by degrees, and inftruct their pupil to appear, with advantage, in that extensively useful capacity of a public speaker. And, indeed, graver writers than our poet have fent the orator to this school. But the pretenfions of poetry go much farther. It delights [from line 130 to 132] to immortalize the triumphs of virtue: to record or feign illustrious examples of heroic worth, for the fervice of the rifing age: and, which is the last and best fruit of philosophy itself, it can relieve even the languor of ill-bealth, and fustain poverty herself under the fcorn and infult of contumelious opulence. 2. In a moral view its fervices are not less considerable. (For it may be observed the poet was fo far of a mind with the philosopher,

[[]r] See an Essay on the Composition of the Antients, by J. Geodes, Esq;

to give no quarter to immeral poets). And to this end it ferves, 1. [line 127] in turning the ear of youth from that early corruptor of its innocence, the feducement of a loofe and impure communication. 2. Next [line 128] in forming our riper age (which it does with all the address and tenderness of friendship: AMICIS praeceptis) by the fanctity and wisdom of its precepts. And, 3. which is the proper office of tragedy, in correcting the excesses of the natural passions [line 122]. The reader who doth not turn himself to the original, will be apt to mistake this detail of the virtues of poetry, for an account of the policy and legislation of ancient and modern times; whose proudest boast, when the philanthropy of their enthufiastic projectors ran at the highest, was but to prevent the impressions of vice: to form the mind to habits of virtue: and to curb and regulate the paffions.

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HI. His services to religion. This might well enough be faid, whether by religion we understand an internal reverence of the gods, which poetry first and principally intended; or their popular adoration and worship, which, by its selficions, as of necessity conforming to the received fancies of superstition, it must greatly tend to promote and establish. But the poet, artfully seizing a circumstance, which supposes

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and includes in it both these respects, renders his defence vastly interesting.

All the customary addresses of heatherism to its gods, more especially on any great and folemn emergency, were the work of the poet. For nature, it feems, had taught the pagan world, what the Hebrew prophets themselves did not disdain to practife, that, to lift the imagination, and, with it, the fluggish affections of human nature, to heaven, it was expedient to lay hold on every affiftance of art. They therefore presented their supplications to the divinity in the richeft and brighteft dress of eloquence, which is poetry. Not to infift, that devotion, when fincere and ardent, from its very nature, enkindles a glow of thought, which communicates strongly with the transports of poetry. Hence the language of the gods (for fo was poetry accounted, as well from its being the divinest species of communication, our rude conceptions can well frame even for fuperior intelligencies, as for that it was the fittest vehicle of our applications to them) became not the ornament only, but an effential in the ceremonial, of paganism. And this, together with an allusion to a form of public prayer (for such was his fecular ode) composed by himself, gives, at once, a grace and fublimity to this part of the apology, which are perfectly inimitable.

Thus

Thus hath the great poet, in the compass of a few lines, drawn together a complete defence of his art. For what more could the warmest admirer of poetry, or, because zeal is quickened by opposition, what more could the vehement declaimer against Plato (who proscribed it), urge in its behalf, than that it furnishes, to the poet himself, the surest means of folitary and social enjoyment: and surther serves to the most important civil, MORAL, and RELIGIOUS purposes?

ANIMUS.] There is an unlucky Italian proverb, which fays, Chi ben scrive, non sara mai ricco.—The true reason, without doubt, is here given by the poet.

124. MILITIAE QUAMQUAM PIGER ET MALUS.] The observation has much grace, as
referring to himself, who had acquired no credit, as a soldier, in the civil wars of his country.—We have an example of this misalliance
between the poetic and military character, recorded in the history of our own civil wars,
which may be just worth mentioning. Sir P.
Warwick, speaking of the famous Earl of
Newcastle, observes—"his edge had too much
"of the razor in it; for he had a tincture of a

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"romantic spirit, and had the misfortune to have somewhat of the poet in him; so as he chose Sir William Davenant, an eminent good poet, and loyal gentleman, to be lieutenant-general of his ordnance. This inclination of his own, and such kind of witty so ciety (to be modest in the expressions of it) diverted many councils, and lost many opportunities, which the nature of that affair, this great man had now entered into, required." Memoirs, p. 235.

132. CASTIS CUM PUERIS, &c.] We have, before, taken notice, how properly the poet, for the easier and more successful introduction of his apology, affumed the person urbani, parcentis viribus. We fee him here, in that of rheteris atque poetae. For admonished, as it were, by the rifing dignity of his fubject, which led him from the moral, to speak of the religious uses of poetry, he infenfibly drops the badineur, and takes an air, not of feriousness only, but of folemnity. This change is made with art. For the attention is carried from the uses of poetry, in confoling the unhappy, by the easiest transition imaginable, to the still more folemn application of it to the offices of piety. And its use is, to impress on the mind a stronger sense of the weight of the poet's plea, than could have been expected

EPISTLE TO AUGUSTUS, 103 expected from a more direct and continued de-

clamation. For this is the conftant and natural effect of knowing to pass from gay to severe, with grace and dignity.

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169. SED HABET COMOEDIA TANTO PLUS ONERIS, QUANTO VENIAE MINUS.] Tragedy, whose intention is to affect, may secure what is most effential to its kind, though it fail in some minuter resemblances of nature: Comedy, propofing for its main end exact representation, is fundamentally defective, if it do not perfectly fucceed in it. And this explains the ground of the poet's observation, that comedy hath veniae minus; for he is speaking of the draught of the manners only, in which respect a greater indulgence is very deservedly shewn to the tragic than comic writer. But though tragedy hath thus far the advantage, yet, in another respect, its laws are more severe than those of comedy; and that is in the conduct of the fable. It may be asked then, which of the two dramas is, on the whole, most difficult. To which the answer is decifive. For tragedy, whose end is the pathos, produces it by action, while comedy produces its end, the humourous, by charafter. Now it is much more difficult to paint manners, than to plan action; because that requires the H 4

philosopher's knowledge of human nature; this, only the historian's knowledge of human events.

It is true, in one fenfe, the tragic muse has veniae minus; for though grave and pleasant fcenes may be indifferently represented, or even mixed together, in comedy, yet, in tragedy, the ferious and folemn air must prevail throughout. Indeed, our Shakespeare has violated this rule, as he hath, upon occasion, almost every other rule, of just criticism: Whence, some writers, taking advantage of that idolatrous admiration which is generally professed for this great poet, and nauseating, I suppose, the more common, though juster, forms of literary composition, have been for turning his very transgression of the principles of common fense, into a standing precept for the stage. " It is faid, that, if " comedy may be wholly ferious, why may not " tragedy now and then be indulged in being " gay?" If these critics be in earnest, in putting this question, they need not long wait for an answer. The end of comedy being to paint the manners, nothing hinders (as I have shewn at large in the differtation on the provinces of the drama) but " that it may take either character of pleasant or serious, as it chances, or even " unite them both in one piece:" But the end of tragedy being to excite the firenger passions, this discordancy in the subject breaks the flow

of those passions, and so prevents, or lessens at least, the very effect which this drama primarily intends. "It is said, indeed, that this contrast "of grave and pleasant scenes, heightens the "passion:" if it had been said that it heightens the surprize, the observation had been more just. Lastly, "we are told, that this is nature, "which generally blends together the ludicrous "and the sublime." But who does not know

That art is nature to advantage drefs'd;

and that to dress our nature to advantage in the present instance, that is, in a composition whose laws are to be deduced from the consideration of its end, these characters are to be kept, by an artist, perfectly distinct?

However, this restraint upon tragedy does not prove that, upon the whole, it has plus oneris. All I can allow is, that either drama has weight enough, in all reason, for the ablest shoulders to sustain.

177. QUEM TULIT AD SCENAM VENTOSO GLORIA CURRU, EXANIMAT LENTUS SPECTATOR, &c. to line 182.] There is an exquisite spirit of pleasantry in these lines, which hath quite evaporated in the hands of the critics. These have gravely supposed them to come from the person of the poet, and to contain his serious censure of the vanity of poetic same. Whereas, besides

befides the manifest absurdity of the thing, its inconsistency with what is delivered elsewhere on this subject [A. P. line 324.] where the Greeks are commended as being practer laudem nullius avari, absolutely requires us to understand them as proceeding from an objector; who, as the poet hath very fatirically contrived, is left to expose himself in the very terms of his objection. He had just been blaming the venality of the Roman' dramatic writers. They had shewn themselves more sollicitous about filling their pockets, than deserving the reputation of good poets. And, instead of insisting surther on the excellency of this latter motive, he stops short, and brings in a bad poet himself to laugh at it.

"And, what then, fays he, you would have us yield ourselves to the very wind and gust of praise; and, dropping all inferior confiderations, drive away to the expecting stage in the puffed car of vain-glory? For what? "To be dispirited, or blown up with air, as the capricious spectator shall think sit to enforce or withhold his inspirations. And is this the mighty benefit of your vaunted passion for fame? No; sarewel the stage, if the breath of others is that, on which the filly bard is to depend for the contraction or enlargement of his dimensions." To all which convincing rhetoric, the poet condescends to say nothing;

as well knowing, that no truer fervice is, oftentimes, done to virtue or good fense, than when a knave or fool is left to himself, to employ his idle raillery against either.

These interlocutory passages, laying open the sentiments of those against whom the poet is disputing, are very frequent in the critical and moral writings of Horace, and are well suited to their dramatic genius and original.

The Romans, who were immoderately addicted to spectacles of every kind, had in particular esteem the funambuli, or rope-dancers:

Ita populus studio stupidus in FUNAMBULO Animum occuparat. PROL. in HECYR.

From the admiration of whose tricks the expression, ire per extentum funem, came to denote, proverbially, an uncommon degree of excellence and perfection in any thing. The allusion is, here, made with much pleasantry, as the poet had just been raillying their fondness for these extraordinary atchievements.

lbid. ILLE PER EXTENTUM FUNEM, &c. to line 214.] It is observable, that Horace, here, makes his own feeling the test of poetical merit. Which is said with a philosophical exactness.

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For the pathos in tragic, humour in comic, and the same holds of the sublime in the narrative, and of every other species of excellence in universal poetry, is the object not of reason, but sentiment; and can be estimated only from its impression on the mind, not by any speculative or general rules. Rules themselves are indeed nothing else but an appeal to experience; conclusions drawn from wide and general observation of the aptness and essential of certain means to produce those impressions. So that feeling or sentiment itself is not only the surest but the sole ultimate arbiter of works of genius.

Yet, though this be true, the invention of general rules is not without its merit, nor the application of them without its use, as may appear from the following considerations.

It may be affirmed, universally, of all didactic swriting, that it is employed in referring particular sacts to general principles. General principles themselves can often be referred to others more general; and these again carried still higher, till we come to a single principle, in which all the rest are involved. When this is done, science of every kind hath attained its highest persection.

The account, here given, might be illustrated from various instances. But it will be sufficient to confine ourselves to the single one of criticism;

criticism; by which I understand that species of didactic writing, which refers to general rules the virtues and faults of composition. And the perfection of this art would confift in an ability to refer every beauty and blemish to a separate class; and every class, by a gradual progression, to some one fingle principle. But the art is, as yet, far short of perfection. For many of these beauties and blemishes can be referred to no general rule at all; and the rules, which have been discovered, seem many of them unconnected, and not reducible to a common principle. It must be admitted, however, that such critics are employed in their proper office, as contribute to the confirmation of rules already established, or the invention of new ones.

Rules already established are then confirmed, when more particulars are referred to them. The invention of new rules implies, 1. A collection of various particulars, not yet regulated. 2. A discovery of those circumstances of resemblance or agreement, whereby they become capable of being regulated. And, 3. A subsequent regulation of them, or arrangement into one class according to such circumstances of agreement. When this is done, the rule is completed. But if the critic is not able to observe any common circumstance of resemblance in the several particulars he hath collected, by which they may, all of them,

them, be referred to one general class, he hath then made no advancement in the art of crticifm. Yet the collection of his particular observations may be of use to other critics; just as collections of natural history, though no part of philosophy, may yet affift philosophical enquirers.

We see then from this general view of the matter, that the merit of inventing general rules confifts in reducing criticism to an art; and that the use of applying them, in practice, when the art is thus formed, is, to direct the caprices

of tafte by the authority of rule, which we call reason.

And, thus much being premifed, we shall now be able to form a proper judgment of the method, which fome of the most admired of the antients. as well as moderns, have taken in this work of criticizing. The most eminent, at least the most popular, are, perhaps, Longinus, of the Greeks; P. Bouhours, of the French; and Mr. Addison, with us in England.

1. All the beautiful passages, which Longinus cites, are referred by him to five general classes. And, 2dly, These general classes belong all to the common principle of fublimity. He does not fay this passage is excellent, but assigns the kind of excellence, viz. sublimity. Neither does he content himself with the general notion of sublimity, but names the species, viz. Grandeur of fenti-

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ment, power of moving the passions, &c. His work therefore enables us to class our perceptions of excellence, and consequently is formed on the true plan of criticism.

- 2. The fame may be observed of P. Bouhours. The passages, cited by him, are never mentioned in general terms as good or bad: but are instances of good or bad fentiment. This is the genus, in which all his instances are comprehended: but of this genus he marks also the distinct species. He does not fay, this fentiment is good; but it is sublime, or natural, or beautiful, or delicate: or, that another fentiment is bad; but that it is mean, or false, or deformed, or affetted. To these feveral classes he refers his particular instances: and these classes themselves are referred to the more comprehensive principles of the excellence or fault of fingle fentiment, as opposed to the various other excellences and faults, which are obferved in composition.
- 3. Mr. Addison, in his criticism on Milton, proceeded in like manner. For, first, these remarks are evidently applicable to the general observations on the poem; in which every thing is referred to the common heads of fable, morals, sentiments, and language; and even the specific excellences and faults considered under each head distinctly marked out. Secondly, The same is true concerning many of the observations on particular

particular passages. The reader is not only told, that a passage has merit; but is informed what fort of merit belongs to it.

Neither are the remaining observations wholly without use. For such particular beauties and blemishes, as are barely collected, may yet serve as a foundation to future enquirers for making further discoveries. They may be confidered as fo many fingle facts, an attention to which is excited by the authority of the critic; and when these are considered jointly with such as others may have observed, those general principles of fimilitude may at length be found, which shall enable us to constitute new classes of poetical merit or blame.

Thus far the candid reader may go in apologizing for the merits of these writers. But as. in found criticisin, candour must not be indulged at the expence of justice, I think myself obliged to add an observation concerning their defects; and that, on what I must think the just principles here delivered.

Though the method, taken by these writers, be fcientifical, the real fervice they have done to criticism is not very considerable. And the reason is, they dwell too much in generals: that is, not only the genus, to which they refer their species, is too large, but those very subordinate species themselves are too comprehensive.

Of the three critics, under confideration, the most instructive is, unquestionably, Longinus. The genus itself, under which he ranks his feveral classes, is as particular, as the species of . the other two. Yet even his classes are much too general to convey any very diffinet and ufeful information. It had been still better, if this fine critic had descended to lower and more minute particularities, as subordinate to each class. For to observe of any fentiment, that it is grand. or pathetic, and fo of the other species of fublime, is faying very little. Few readers want to be informed of this. It had been fufficient, if any notice was to be taken at all of fo general beauties, to have done it in the way, which fome of the best critics have taken, of merely pointing to them. But could he have discovered, and produced to observation, those peculiar qualities in fentiment, which occasion the impression of grandeur, pathos, &c. this had been advancing the science of criticism very much, as tending to lay open the more fecret and hidden fprings of that pleasures which results from poetical composition.

P. Bouhours, as I observed, is still more faulty. His very species are so large, as make his criticism almost wholly useless and insignificant.

It gives one pain to refuse to such a writer, as Mr. Addison, any kind of merit, which he ap-Vol. II. I pears

pears to have valued himself upon, and which the generality of his readers have feemed willing to allow him. Yet it must not be diffembled, that criticism was by no means his talent. His tafte was truly elegant; but he had neither that vigour of understanding, nor chastised, philosophical spirit, which are so essential to this character, and which we find in hardly any of the antients besides Aristotle, and but in a very few of the moderns. For what concerns his criticism on Milton in particular, there was this accidental benefit arifing from it, that it occafioned an admirable poet to be read, and his excellencies to be observed. But for the merit of the work itself, if there be any thing just in the plan, it was, because Aristotle and Bossu had taken the fame route before him. And as to his own proper observations, they are for the most part so general and indeterminate, as to afford but little instruction to the reader, and are, not unfrequently, altogether frivolous. They are of a kind with those, in which the French critics (for I had rather inflance in the defects of foreign writers than of our own) fo much abound; and which good judges agree to rank in the worst fort of criticism. To give one example for all.

Cardinal Perron, taking occasion to commend certain pieces of the poet Ronsard, chuses T

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chuses to deliver himself in the following manners: "Prenez de lui quelque poëme que ce "foit, il paye toujours son lecteur, et quand la "verve le prend, il se guinde en haut, il vous "porte jusques dans les nuës, il vous fait voir "mille belles choses.

"Que ses saisons sont bien-faites! Que la description de la lyre a Bertaut est admirable! "Que le discours au ministre, excellent! Tous ses ses hymnes sont beaux. Celui de l'eternité est admirable; ceux des saisons marveilleux." [Perroniana.]

What now has the reader learned from this varied criticism, but that his Eminence was indeed very fond of his poet; and that he esteemed these several pieces to be (what with less expence of words he might, in one breath, have called them) well-turned, beautiful, excellent, admirable, marvellous, poems? To have given us the true character of each, and to have marked the precise degree, as well as kind, of merit in these works, had been a task of another nature.

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The word inaniter, as well as falsi, applied in the following line to terrores, would express that wondrous force of dramatic representation, which compels us to take part in feigned adventures and situations, as if they were real; and exer-

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cises the passions with the same violence, in remote fancied scenes, as in the present distresses of real life.

And this is that fovereign quality in poetry, which, as an old writer of our own naturally expresses it, is of force to hold children from play, and old men from the chimney corner [s]. The poet, in the place before us, considers it as a kind of magic virtue, which transports the spectator into all places, and makes him, occasionally, assume all persons. The resemblance holds, also, in this, that its effects are instantaneous and irresistible. Rules, art, decorum, all fall before it. It goes directly to the heart, and gains all purposes at once. Hence it is, that, speaking of a real genius, possessed of this commanding power, Horace pronounces him, emphatically, THE POET,

Ille per extentum funem mihi posse videtur Ire POETA:

it being more especially this property, which, of itself, discovers the true dramatist, and secures the success of his performance, not only without the affistance of art, but in direct opposition to its clearest dictates.

This power has been felt on a thousand other occasions. But its triumphs were never more

[s] Sir Philip Sidney.

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conspicuous, than in the famous instance of the CID of P. Corneille; which, by the sole means of this enchanting quality, drew along with it the affections and applauses of a whole people; notwithstanding the manifest transgression of some effential rules, the utmost tyranny of jealous power, and, what is more, in defiance of all the authority, and good sense of one of the justest pieces of criticism in the French language, written purposely to discredit and expose it.

224. CUM LAMENTAMUR NON ADPARERE LABORES NOSTROS, &c.] It was remarked upon line 211, that the beauties of a poem can only appear by being felt. And they, to whom they do not appear in this inflance, are the writer's own friends, who, it is not to be supposed, would disguise their feelings. So that the lamentation, here spoken of, is at once a proof of impertinence in the poet, and of the badness of his poetry, which sets the complainant in a very ridiculous light.

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228. EGERE VETES.] The poet intended, in these words, a very just satire on those prefuming wits and scholars, who, under the pretence of getting above distressful want, in reality aspire to public honours and preferments; though

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this be the most inexcusable of all follies (to give it the foftest name), which can infest a man of letters: Both, because experience, on which a wife man would chuse to regulate himfelf, is contrary to these hopes; and because, if literary merit could fucceed in them, the reward, as the poet speaks,

would either bring No joy, or be destructive of the thing :

That is, the learned would either have no relish for the delights of fo widely different a fituation; or, which hath oftener been the case, would lose the learning itself, or the love of it at least, on which their pretensions to this reward are founded.

232. GRATUS ALEXANDRO REGI MAGNO, &c.] This praise of Augustus, arising from the comparison of his character with that of Alexander, is extremely fine. It had been obferved of the Macedonian by his historians and panegyrifts, that, to the ftern virtues of the conqueror, he had joined the fofter accomplishments of the virtuofo, in a just discernment and love of poetry, and of the elegant arts. The one was thought clear, from his admiration and fludy of Homer: And the other, from his famous edict concerning Apelles and Lyfippus, could not be denied. Horace finds means to turn both these circumstances

circumstances in his story to the advantage of his prince.

From his extravagant pay of fuch a wretched verfifier as Choerilus, he would infinuate, that Alexander's love of the muse was, in fact, but a blind unintelligent impulse towards glory. And from his greater skill in the arts of sculpture and painting, than of verfe, he represents him as more concerned about the drawing of his figure. than the pourtraiture of his manners and mind. Whereas Augustus, by his liberalities to Varius and Virgil, had discovered the truest taste in the art, from which he expected immortality: and, in trufting to that, as the chief instrument of his fame, had confessed a prior regard to those mental virtues, which are the real ornament of humanity, before that look of terror, and air and attitude of victory, in which the brute violence of Alexander most delighted to be shewn.

243. Musarum dona.] The expression is happy; as implying, that these images of virtue, which are represented as of such importance to the glory of princes, are not the mere offerings of poetry to greatness, but the free-gifts of the muse to the poet. For it is only to such works, as these, that Horace attributes the wondrous efficacy of expressing the manners and mind in

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fuller and more durable relief, than sculpture gives to the exterior figure.

Non magis expressi vultus per aënea signa, Quam per vatis opus mores animique virorum Clarorum adparent.

247.—VIRGILIUS.] Virgil is mentioned, in this place, fimply as a poet. The precise idea of his poetry is given us elsewhere.

molle atque facetum
Virgilio annuerunt gaudentes rure Camaenae.

[1 Sat. x. 44.

But this may appear a strange praise of the sweet and polished Virgil. It may appear so to Quinctilian, who cites this passage, and explains it, without doubt, very justly, yet in such a way as shews that he was not quite certain of the truth of his explanation.

The case, I believe, was this. The word facetum, which makes the difficulty, had acquired, in Quinctilian's days, the sense of pleafant, witty, or facetious, in exclusion to every other idea, which had formerly belonged to it. It is true that, in the Augustan age, and still earlier, facetum was sometimes used in this sense. But its proper and original meaning was no more than exast, fastitatum, benè fastum. And in this strict sense, I believe, it is always used by Horace.

Malthinus

Malthinus tunicis demissis ambulat: est qui Inguen ad obscoenum subdustis usque facetus.

1 Sat. 11: 25,

i. e. tucked up, trim, expedite.

Mutatis tantum pedibus numerisque facetus.

1 Sat. 1v. 7.

i. e. he [Lucilius] adopted a firiter measure, than the writers of the old comedy; or, by changing the loose iambic to the hexameter verse, he gave a proof his art, skill, and improved judgment.

frater, pater, adde; Ut cuique est aetas, ita quemque facetus adopta.

1 Ep. vi. 55.

i. e. nicely and accurately adapt your address to the age and condition of each.

I do not recollect any other place where facetus is used by Horace; and in all these it seems probable to me that the principal idea, conveyed by it, is that of care, art, skill, only differently modified according to the subject to which it is applied: a gown tucked up with care—a measure studiously affected—an address nicely accommodated—No thought of ridicule or pleasantry intended.

It is the same in the present instance—
MOLLE ATQUE FACETUM,

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i. e. a fost slowing versission, and an exquisitely finished expression: the two precise, characteristic merits of Virgil's rural poetry.

This change, in the fense of words, is common in all languages, and creeps in so gradually and imperceptibly as to elude the notice, sometimes, of the best critics, even in their own language. The transition of ideas, in the present instance, may be traced thus. As what was wittily said, was most studied, artificial, and exquisite; hence in process of time facetum lost its primary sense, and came to signify merely, witty.

We have a like example in our own language, A good wit meant formerly a man of good natural fense and understanding: but because what we now call wit was observed to be the flower and quintessence, as it were, of good sense, hence a man of wit is now the exclusive attribute of one who exerts his good sense in that peculiar manner.

247. DILECTI TIBI VIRGILIUS, &c.] It does honour to the memory of Augustus, that he bore the affection, here spoken of, to this amiable poet; who was not more distinguished from his contemporary writers by the force of an original, inventive genius, than the singular benevolence and humanity of his character. Yet there

there have been critics of so perverse a turn, as to discover an inclination, at least, of disputing both.

1. Some have taken offence at his supposed unfriendly neglect of Horace, who, on every occasion, shewed himself so ready to lavish all his praises on him. But the folly of this slander is of a piece with its malignity, as proceeding on the absurd fancy, that Virgil's friends might as easily have slid into such works, as the Georgics and Eneïs, as those of Horace into the various occasional poems, which employed his pen.

Just such another senseless suspicion hath been raised of his jealousy of Homer's superior glory (a vice, from which the nature of the great poet was singularly abhorrent), only because he did not think sit to give him the first place among the poets in Elysum, several hundred years before he had so much as made his appearance upon earth.

But these petty calumnies of his moral character hardly deserve a consutation. What some greater authorities have objected to his poetical, may be thought more serious. For,

2. It has been given out by some of better note among the moderns, and from thence, according to the customary influence of authority, hath become the prevailing sentiment of the generality

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generality of the learned, that the great poet was more indebted for his fame to the exactness of his judgment; to his industry, and a certain trick of imitation, than to the energy of natural genius; which he is thought to have possessed

in a very flender degree.

This charge is founded on the fimilitude, which all acknowledge, betwixt his great work, the Aeneis, and the poems of Homer. But, " how far such similitude infers imitation; or, " how far imitation itself infers an inferiority " of natural genius in the imitator," this hath never been confidered. In short, the affair of imitation in poetry, though one of the most curious and interesting in all criticism, hath been, hitherto, very little understood: as may appear from hence, that there is not, as far as I can learn, one fingle treatife, now extant, written purposely to explain it; the discourse, which the learned Menage intended, and which, doubtless, would have given light to this matter, having never, as I know of, been made public, To supply, in some measure, this loss, I have thought it not amiss to put together, and methodize a few reflexions of my own on this fubject, which (because the matter is large, and cannot eafily be drawn into a compass that suits with the nature of these occasional remarks)

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the reader will find in a distinct and separate dissertation upon it [t].

CONCLUSION.

AND, now, having explained, in the best manner I could, the two samous Epistles of Horace to Augustus and the Pisos, it may be expected, in conclusion, that I should say something of the rest of our poet's critical writings. For his Sermones (under which general term I include his Epistles) are of two sorts, MORAL and CRITICAL; and, though both are exquisite, the latter are, perhaps, in their kind, the more persect of the two; his moral principles being sometimes, I believe, liable to exception; his critical, never.

The two pieces, illustrated in these volumes, are strictly critical: the first, being a professed criticism of the Roman drama; and the last, in order to their vindication, of the Roman poets. The rest of his works, which turn upon this subject of criticism, may be rather termed Apologetical. They are the 1vth and xth of the First, and 1st of the Second book of Satires;

[1] Diff. III. in the third Volume.

and the XIXth of the FIRST, and, in part, the III of the SECOND book of Epiftles.

In these, the poet has THREE great objects; one or other of which he never loses sight of, and generally he prosecutes them all together, in the same piece. These objects are, 1, to vindicate the way of writing in satire. 2. To justify his opinion of a favourite writer of this class, the celebrated Lucilius. And, 3. to expose the careless and incorrect composition of the Roman writers.

He was himself deeply concerned in these three articles; so that he makes his own apology at the same time that he criticizes or censures others. The address of the poet's manner will be seen by bearing in mind this general purpose of his critical poetry. How he came to be engaged in this controversy, will best appear from a few observations on the state of the Roman learning, when he undertook to contribute his pains to the improvement of it.

I have, in the introduction to the first of these volumes, given a slight sketch of the rise and progress of the Roman satire. This poem was purely of Roman invention: first of all struck out of the old sescennine sarce, and rudely cultivated, by Ennius: Next, more happily treated, and enriched with the best part of

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the old comedy, by Lucilius: And, after some succeeding essays, taken up and finally adorned, by Horace.

HORACE was well known to the public by his lyric compositions, and still more perhaps by his favour at court, when he took upon him to correct the manners and taste of his age, by his Lucilian Satires. But, here, he encountered, at once, many prejudices; and all his own credit, together with that of his court-friends, was little enough to support him, against the torrents

FIRST, the kind of writing itself was sure to give offence. For, though men were well enough pleased to have their natural malignity gratified by an old poet's satire against a former age, yet they were naturally alarmed at the exercise of this talent upon their own, and, as it might chance, upon themselves.

The poet's eminence, and favour, would, befides, give a peculiar force and effect to his cenfures; fo that all who found, or thought themfelves liable to them, were concerned, in interest, to discredit the attempt, and blast his rising reputation.

Omnes hi metuunt versus, odere POETAM.

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Hence, he was constrained to stand upon his own defence, and to vindicate, as well the thing thing itself, as his management of it, to the tender and suspicious public.

But this was not all: For, Secondly, an old fatirift, of high birth and quality, Lucilius, was confidered, not only as an able writer of this class, but as a perfect model in it; and of course, therefore, this new fatirist would be much decried and undervalued, on the compari-This circumstance obliged the poet to reduce this admired writer to his real value: which could not be done without thwarting the general admiration, and pointing out his vices and defects in the freeft manner. This perilous task he discharged in the 1vth fatire of his first book, and with fuch rigour of criticism, that not only the partizans of Lucilius in the poet's own age, but the most knowing and candid critics of fucceeding times, were disposed to complain of it. However, the obnoxious flep had been taken; and nothing remained but to justify himself, as he hath done at large, in his xth fatire.

On the whole, in comparing what he has faid in these two satires with what Quinctilian long after observed on the subject of them, there seems no reason to conclude, that the poet judged ill: though he expressed his judgment in such terms as he would, no doubt, have something

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thing foftened (out of complaifance to the general fentiment, and a becoming deference to the real merits of his mafter), if his adversaries had been more moderate in urging their charge, or if the occasion had not been so pressing.

Laftly, this attack on Lucilius produced, or rather involved in it, a THIRD quarrel. The poet's main objection to Lucilius was his careless, verbose, and hasty composition, which his admirers, no doubt, called genius, grace, and ftrength. This being an inveterate folly among his countrymen, he gives it no quarter. Through all his critical works, he employs the utmost force of his wit and good fense to expose it: And his own writings, being at the fame time fupremely correct, afforded his enemies (which would provoke them still more) no advantage against him. Yet they attempted, as they could, to repay his perpetual reproaches on the popular writers for their neglect of limae labor, by objecting to him, in their turn, that what he wrote was fine nervis: and this, though they felt his force themselves, and though another set of men were complaining, at the fame time, of his feverity,

Sunt quibus in satyra videor nimis ACER—

SINE NERVIS altera quicquid

Composui pars esse putat, similesque meorum

Mille die versus deduci posse—

Vol. II. K His

His detractors fatirically alluding, in these last words, to his charge against Lucilius —

in horâ saepè ducentos, Ut magnum, versus distabat, stans pede in uno.

It is not my purpose, in this place, to enlarge further on the character of Lucilius, whose wordy satires gave occasion to our poet's criticism. Several of the antient writers speak of him occasionally, in terms of the highest applause; and without doubt, he was a poet of distinguished merit. Yet it will hardly be thought, at this day, that it could be any discredit to him to be censured, rivalled, and excelled by Horace.

What I have here put together is only to furnish the young reader with the proper Key to Horace's critical works, which generally turn on his own vindication, against the enemies of satire—the admirers of Lucilius—and the

patrons of loofe and incorrect composition.

In managing these several topics, he has found means to introduce a great deal of exquisite criticism. And though his scattered observations go but a little way towards making up a complete critical system, yet they are so luminous, as the French speak, that is, they are so replete with good sense, and extend so much farther than to the case to which they are immediately

EPISTLE TO AUGUSTUS. 131

mediately applied, that they furnish many of the principles on which such a system, if ever it be taken in hand, must be constructed: And, without carrying matters too far, we may safely affirm of these Critical Discourses, that, next to Aristotle's immortal work, they are the most valuable remains of antient art upon this subject.

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II III IV

CRIPEL

CRITICAL DISSERTATIONS.

- I. ON THE IDEA OF UNIVERSAL POETRY.
- II. On the provinces of dramatic poetry.
- III. ON POETICAL IMITATION.
- IV. ON THE MARKS OF IMITATION.

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CRITICAL DISTERTATIONS.

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DISSERTATION I.

ON

THE IDEA OF UNIVERSAL POETRY.

HEN we speak of poetry, as an art, we mean such a way or method of treating a subject, as is found most pleasing and delightful to us. In all other kinds of literary composition, pleasure is subordinate to use: in poetry only, pleasure is the end, to which use itself (however it be, for certain reasons, always pretended) must submit.

This idea of the end of poetry is no novel one, but indeed the very same which our great philosopher entertained of it; who gives it as the essential note of this part of learning — THAT IT SUBMITS THE SHEWS OF THINGS TO THE DESIRES OF THE MIND: WHEREAS REASON DOTH BUCKLE AND BOW THE MIND UNTO THE

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NATURE

MATURE OF THINGS. For to gratify the defires of the mind, is to PLEASE: Pleasure then, in the idea of Lord Bacon, is the ultimate and appropriate end of poetry; for the fake of which it accommodates itself to the defires of the mind, and doth not (as other kinds of writing, which are under the controll of reason) buckle and bow the mind to the nature of things.

But they, who like a principle the better for feeing it in Greek, may take it in the words of an old philosopher, Eratosthenes, who affirmed — συτήρι σώνθως σοχάζεσθαι ψυχαγωγίας, ε διδασπαλίας — of which words, the definition given above, is

the translation.

This notion of the end of poetry, if kept steadily in view, will unfold to us all the mysteries of the poetic art. There needs but to eyolve the philosopher's idea, and to apply it, as occasion serves. The art of poetry will be, universally, THE ART OF PLEASING; and all its rules, but so many MEANS, which experience finds most conducive to that end;

Sic ANIMIS natum inventumque poëma Iu-VANDIS.

Aristotle has delivered and explained these rules, so far as they respect one fpecies of poetry, the dramatic, or, more properly fpeaking, the tragic: And when fuch a writer, as he, shall do as much by the other species, then, and not till then, a complete ART OF POETRY will be formed.

I have not the prefumption to think myself, in any degree, equal to this arduous task: But from the idea of this art. as given above, an ordinary writer may undertake to deduce fome general conclusions, concerning Universal Poetry, which feem preparatory to those nicer disquisitions, concerning its feveral forts or species.

I. It follows from that IDEA, that it should neglect no advantage, that fairly offers itself, of appearing in such a dress or mode of language, as is most taking and agreeable to us. We may expect then, in the language or style of poetry, a choice of fuch words as are most fonorous and expressive, and such an arrangement of them

them as throws the discourse out of the ordinary and common phrase of conversation. Novelty and variety are certain sources of pleasure: a construction of words, which is not vulgar, is therefore more suited to the ends of poetry, than one which we are every day accustomed to in familiar discourse. Some manners of placing them are, also, more agreeable to the ear, than others: Poetry, then, is studious of these, as it would by all means, not manifestly absurd, give pleasure: And hence a certain musical cadence, or what we call Rbythm, will be affected by the poet.

But, of all the means of adorning and enlivening a discourse by words, which are infinite, and perpetually grow upon us, as our knowledge of the tongue in which we write, and our skill in adapting it to the ends of poetry, increases, there is none that pleases more, than figurative expression.

By figurative expression, I would be understood to mean, here, that which respects the pictures or images of things. And this fort of figurative expression is universally pleasing

The antients looked for fo much of this force and spirit of expression in whatever they dignified with the name of poem, that Horace tells us it was made a question by some, whether comedy were rightly referred to this class, because it differed only in point of measure from mere prose.

of them, only shew that they are not capable of being pleased by this fort of composition, or do, in effect, interdict the thing

itself.

Idcirco

140 ON THE IDEA OF

Ideireo quidam, comoedia necne poema

Esset, quaesivere: quod acer spiritus, ac vis,

Nec verbis, nec rebus inest: nisi quod pede certo

Differt sermoni, sermo merus— Sat. l. I. iv.

But they might have spared their doubt, or at least have resolved it, if they had considered that comedy adopts as much of this force and spirit of words, as is consistent with the nature and degree of that pleasure, which it pretends to give. For the name of poem will belong to every composition, whose primary end is to please, provided it be so constructed as to afford all the pleasure, which its kind or sort will permit.

II. From the idea of the end of poetry, it follows, that not only figurative and tropical terms will be employed in it, as these, by the images they convey, and by the air of novelty which such indirect ways of speaking carry with them, are found most delightful to us, but also that FICTION, in the largest sense of the word, is essential to poetry. For its purpose is, not to delineate truth simply, but to present it in the most taking forms; not to resect the

real

Ουτ' ἐπιδερκ]ὰ τάδ' ἀνδράσιν, ἕτ' ἐπακυςὰ, Ουτε νόω σερίληπ]α—

as fings one of the profession [a], who feems to have understood his privileges very well.

For there is fomething in the mind of man, fublime and elevated, which prompts it to overlook all obvious and familiar appearances, and to feign to itself other and more extraordinary; such as correspond to the extent of its own powers, and fill out all the faculties and capacities of our souls. This restless and aspiring disposition, poetry, first and principally, would indulge and flatter; and thence takes its name of divine, as if some power, above

[a] Empedocles. See Plutarch, vol. i. p. 15. Par. 1624.

buman,

buman, conspired to lift the mind to these exalted conceptions.

Hence it comes to pass, that it deals in apostrophes and invocations; that it impersonates the virtues and vices; peoples all creation with new and living forms; calls up infernal spectres to terrify, or brings down celestial natures to astonish, the imagination; affembles, combines, or connects its ideas, at pleasure; in short, prefers not only the agreeable and the graceful, but, as occasion calls upon her, the vast, the incredible, I had almost faid, the impossible, to the obvious truth and nature of things. For all this is but a feeble expression of that magic virtue of poetry, which our Shakespeare has so forcibly described in those well-known lines -

The poet's eye, in a fine frenzy rowling, Doth glance from heav'n to earth, from earth to heav'n;

And, as Imagination bodies forth

The forms of things unknown, the poet's pen Turns them to shape, and gives to acry nothing A local habitation and a name.

When

When the received fystem of manners or religion in any country, happens to be fo constituted as to suit itself in some degree to this extravagant turn of the human mind, we may expect that poetry will feize it with avidity, will dilate upon it with pleasure, and take a pride to erect its specious wonders on fo proper and convenient a ground. Whence it cannot feem strange that, of all the forms in which poetry has appeared, that of pagan fable, and gotbic romance, should, in their turns, be found the most alluring to the true poet. For, in defect of these advantages, he will ever adventure, in some fort, to supply their place with others of his own invention; that is, he will mould every fystem, and convert every subject, into the most amazing and miraculous form.

And this is that I would fay, at present, of these two requisites of universal poetry, namely, that licence of expression, which we call the style of poetry, and that licence of representation, which we call station. The style is, as it were, the body of poetry; station, is its soul. Having, thus, taken the privilege

privilege of a poet to create a Muse, we have only now to give her a voice, or more properly to tune it, and then she will be in a condition, as one of her favourites speaks, TORAVISH ALL THE GODS. For

III. It follows from the fame idea of the end, which poetry would accomplish, that not only Rhythm, but NUMBERS, properly so called, is effential to it. For this Art undertaking to gratify all those defires and expectations of pleasure, that can be reasonably entertained by us; and there being a capacity in language, the instrument it works by, of pleasing us very highly, not only by the fense and imagery it conveys, but by the structure of words, and still more by the harmonious arrangement of them in metrical founds or numbers, and laftly there being no reason in the nature of the thing itself why these pleasures should not be united, it follows that poetry will not be that which it professes to be, that is, will not accomplish its own purpose, unless it delight the ear with numbers, or, in other words, unless it be cloathed in VERSE.

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The reader, I dare fay, has hitherto gone along with me, in this deduction: but here, I suspect, we shall separate. Yet he will startle the less at this conclusion, if he restlect on the origin and first application of poetry among all nations.

It is every where of the most early growth, preceding every other fort of composition; and being destined for the ear, that is, to be either fung, or at least recited, it adapts itself, even in its first rude effays, to that fense of measure and proportion in founds, which is fo natural to us. The hearer's attention is the fooner gained by this means, his entertainment quickened, and his admiration of the performer's art excited. Men are ambitious of pleasing, and ingenious in refining upon what they observe will please. So that mufical cadences and harmonious founds, which nature dictated, are farther foftened and improved by art, till poetry become as ravishing to the ear, as the images, it prefents, are to the imagination. In process of time, what was at first the extemporaneous production of genius or passion, under VOL. II.

whose honour the great Geographer would affert, in his criticism on Eratosthenes) frequently instruct us by a true and faithful representation of things; yet even this instructive air is only assumed for the fake of pleofing; which, as the human mind is constituted, they could not so well do, if they did not instruct at all, that is, if truth were wholly neglected by them. So that pleasure is still the ultimate end and Scope of the poet's art; and instruction itself is, in his hands, only one of the means, by which he would effect it [b].

. I am the larger on this head, to shew that it is not a mere verbal dispute, as it is commonly thought, whether poems should be written in verse, or no. Men may include, or not include, the idea of metre in their complex idea of what they call a Poem. What I contend for, is, that metre, as an instrument of pleasing, is esfential to every work of poetic art, and would therefore enter into fuch idea, if men judged of poetry according to its confessed nature and end.

[[]b] See STRABO, I. i. p. 15. Par. 1620. Whence

Whence it may feem a little strange, that my Lord Bacon should speak of poefy as a part of learning in measure of words FOR THE MOST PART restrained; when his own notion, as we have feen above, was, that the effence of poetry confifted in submitting the shews of things to the defires of the mind. For these shews of things could only be exhibited to the mind through the medium of words: and it is just as natural for the mind to defire that these words should be barmonious, as that the images, conveyed in them, should be illustrious; there being a capacity in the mind of being delighted through its organ, the ear, as well as through its power, or faculty of imagination. And the wonder is the greater, because the great philosopher himself was aware of the agreement and confort which poetry bath with music. as well as with man's nature and pleasure. that is, with the pleasure which naturally refults from gratifying the imagination. So that, to be confistent with himself, he should, methinks, have faid - that poefy was a part of learning in measure of words

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become a standing law of the tragic stage. For this, as every other poem, being calculated and designed properly and ultimately to please, whatever contributes to produce that end most perfectly, all circumstances taken into the account, must be thought of the nature or essence of the kind.

But, without carrying matters fo far, let us confine our attention to metre, or what we call verse. This must be essential to every work bearing the name of poem, not, because we are only accustomed to call works written in verse, poems, but because a work, which professes to please us by every possible and proper method, and yet does not give us this pleasure, which it is in its power, and is no way improper for it, to give, must so far fall short of suffilling its own engagements to us; that is, it has not all those qualities which we have a right to expect in a work of literary art, of which pleasure is the ultimate end.

To explain myself by an obvious instance. History undertakes to instruct us in the transactions of past times. If it an-

fwer

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fwer this purpose, it does all that is of its nature; and, if it find means to please us, besides, by the harmony of its style, and vivacity of its narration, all this is to be accounted as pure gain: if it instructed only, by the truth of its reports, and the perspiouity of its method, it would fully attain its end. Poetry, on the other hand, undertakes to PLEASE. If it employ all its powers to this purpose, it effects all that is of its nature: if it serve, besides, to inform or instruct us, by the truths it conveys, and by the precepts or examples it inculcates, this fervice may rather be accepted, than required by us: if it pleased only, by its ingenious fictions, and harmonious structure, it would discharge its office, and answer its end.

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In this fense, the famous saying of Eratosthenes, quoted above—that the poet's aim is to please, not to instruct—is to be understood: nor does it appear, what reason Strabo could have to take offence at it; however it might be misapplied, as he tells us it was, by that writer. For, though the poets, no doubt (and especially THE POET, L 3 whose

the conduct of a natural ear, becomes the labour of the closet, and is conducted by artificial rules; 'yet still, with a secret reference to the sense of hearing, and to that acceptation which melodious sounds meet with in the recital of expressive words.

Even the prose-writer (when the art is enough advanced to produce prose) having been accustomed to have his ear consulted and gratified by the poet, catches insensibly the same harmonious affection, tunes his sentences and periods to some agreement with song, and transfers into his coolest narrative, or gravest instruction, something of that music, with which his ear vibrates from poetic impressions.

In short, he leaves measured and determinate numbers, that is, Metre, to the poet, who is to please up to the height of his faculties, and the nature of his work; and only reserves to himself, whose purpose of giving pleasure is subordinate to another end, the looser musical measure, or what we call Rhythmical Prose.

The reason appears, from this deduction, why all poetry aspires to please by melodious

dious numbers. To some species it is thought more effential, than to others, because those species continue to be sung, that is, are more immediately addressed to the ear; and because they continue to be fung in concert with musical instruments, by which the ear is still more indulged. It happened in antient Greece, that even tragedy retained this accompaniment of musical instruments, through all its stages, and even in its most improved state. Whence Aristotle includes music, properly so called, as well as Rhythm and Meire, in his idea of the tragic poem. He did this, because he found the drama of his country, omnibus numeris absolutum, I mean in possession of all the advantages which could refult from the union of rbythmical, metrical, and musical founds. Modern tragedy has relinquished part of these; yet still, if it be true that this poem be more pleasing by the addition of the mufical art, and there be nothing in the nature of the composition which forbids the use of it, I know not why Aristotle's idea should not be adopted, and his precept L 2 become But

ALWAYS restrained; such poesy, as, through the idleness or negligence of writers, is not so restrained, not agreeing to his own

idea of this part of learning [c].

These reflexions will afford a proper folution of that question, which has been agitated by the critics, "Whether a work " of fiction and imagination (fuch as that " of the archbishop of Cambray, for in-" stance) conducted, in other respects, ac-" cording to the rules of the epic poem, but " written in profe, may deserve the name of " POEM, or not." For, though it be frivolous indeed to dispute about names, yet from what has been faid it appears, that if metre be not incongruous to the nature of an epic composition, and it afford a pleasure which is not to be found in mere profe, metre is, for that reason, esfential to this mode of writing; which is only faying in other words, that an epic composition, to give all the pleasure which it is capable of giving, must be written in verse.

But,

[[]c] ADV. OF LEARNING, vol. i. p. 50. Dr. Birch's Ed. 1765.

But, recondly, this conclusion, I think, extends farther than to fuch works as aspire to the name of epic. For instance, what are we to think of those novels or romances, as they are called, that is, fables constructed on some private and familiar subject, which have been so current, of late, through all Europe? As they propose pleasure for their end, and prosecute it, besides, in the way of fiction, though without metrical numbers, and generally, indeed, in harsh and rugged prose, one easily sees what their pretensions are, and under what idea they are ambitious to be received. Yet, as they are wholly destitute of meafured founds (to fay nothing of their other numberless defects) they can, at most, be confidered but as hafty, imperfect, and abortive poems; whether spawned from the dramatic, or narrative species, it may be hard to fay -

Unfinish'd things, one knows not what to call, Their generation's so equivocal.

However, such as they are, these novelties have been generally well received: Some, for the real merit of their execution;

Others.

ful and harmonious than the French, may afford all the melody of found which is expected in some forts of poetry, by its varied pause, and quantity only; while in other forts, which are more follicitous to please the ear, and where fuch follicitude, if taken notice of by the reader or heater, is not refented, it may be proper, or rather it becomes a law of the English and Italian poetry, to adopt rhyme. Thus, our tragedies are usually composed in blank verse: but our epic and lyric compositions are found most pleasing, when cloathed in shyme. Milton, I know, it will be faid, is an exception: But, if we fet aside some learned perions, who have fuffered themfelves to be too eafily prejudiced by their admiration of the Greek and Latin languages, and still more, perhaps, by the prevailing notion of the monkish or gothic original of rhymed verse, all other readers, if left to themselves, would, I dare say, be more delighted with this poet, if, belides his various paufe, and measured quantity, he had enriched his numbers, with rhyme. So that his love of diberty, the ruling paffion

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fion of his heart, perhaps transported him too far, when he chose to follow the example set him by one or two writers of prime note (to use his own eulogium), rather than comply with the regular and prevailing practice of his favoured Italy, which first and principally, as our best rhymist sings,

With pauses, cadence, and well-vowell'd words, And all the graces a good ear affords, MADE RHYME AN ART—

Our comedy, indeed, is generally written in prose; but through the idleness, or ill tafte, of our writers, rather than from any other just cause. For, though rhyme be not necessary, or rather would be improper, in the comedy of our language, which can support itself in poetic numbers, without the diligence of rhyme; yet some fort of metre is requifite in this humbler species of poem; otherwise, it will not contribute all that is within its power and province, And the particular metre, proto please. per for this species, is not far to seek. For it can plainly be no other than a careless and loofer lambic, fuch as our language naturally

are studiously avoided by good writers; while in others, as in all the modern ones, where these consonances are less frequent, and where the quantity of syllables is not so distinctly marked as, of itself, to afford an harmonious measure and musical variety. there it is of necessity that poets have had recourse to Rbyme; or to some other expedient of the like nature, such as the Alliteration, for instance; which is only another way of delighting the ear by iterated found, and may be defined, the consonance of initial letters, as rhyme is, the consonance of final syllables. All this, I say, is of neceffity, because what we call verses in such languages will be otherwise untuneful, and will not strike the ear with that vivacity, which is requisite to put a sensible difference between poetic numbers and meafured profe.

In short, no method of gratifying the ear by measured sound, which experience has found pleasing, is to be neglected by the poet; and although, from the different Aructure and genius of languages, these methods will be different, the studious application

application of fuch methods, as each particular language allows, becomes a necessary part of his office. He will only cultivate those methods most, which tend to produce, in a given language, the most harmonious structure or measure, of which it is capable.

Hence it comes to pass, that the poetry of some modern languages cannot so much as subsist, without rhyme: In others, it is only embellished by it. Of the former sort is the French, which therefore adopts, and with good reason, rhymed verse, not in tragedy only, but in comedy: And though soreigners, who have a language differently constructed, are apt to treat this observance of rhyme as an idle affectation, yet it is but just to allow that the French themselves are the most competent judges of the natural defect of their own tongue, and the likeliest to perceive by what management such defect is best remedied or concealed.

In the latter class of languages, whose poetry is only embellished by the use of rhyme, we may reckon the Italian and the English: which being naturally more tune-

Others, for their amusing subjects; All of them, for the gratification they afford, or promife at least, to a vitiated, palled, and fickly imagination - that last disease of learned minds, and fure prognostic of expiring Letters. But whatever may be the temporary fuccess of these things (for they vanish as fast as they are produced, and are produced as foon as they are conceived) good fense will acknowledge no work of art but fuch as is composed according to the laws of its kind. These KINDS, as arbitrary things as we account them (for I neither forget nor dispute what our best philosophy teaches concerning kinds and forts), have yet so far their foundation in nature and the reason of things, that it will not be allowed us to multiply, or vary them, at pleasure. We may, indeed, mix and confound them, if we will (for there is a fort of literary luxury, which would engrofs all pleafures at once, even fuch as are contradictory to each other), or, in our rage for incessant gratisication, we may take up with half-formed pleasures, such as come first to hand, and may

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may be administered by any body: But true taste requires chaste, severe, and simple pleasures; and true genius will only be concerned in administering such.

Lastly, on the same principle on which we have decided on these questions concerning the absolute merits of poems in prose, in all languages, we may, also, determine another, which has been put concerning the comparative merits of RHYMED, and what is called BLANK verse, in our own, and the other modern languages.

Critics and antiquaries have been follicitous to find out who were the inventors of rhyme, which fome fetch from the Monks, fome from the Goths, and others from the Arabians: whereas, the truth feems to be, that rbyme, or the confonance of final syllables, occurring at stated intervals, is the dictate of nature, or, as we may fay, an appeal to the ear, in all languages, and in some degree pleasing in all. The difference is, that, in some languages, these consonances are apt of themselves to occur so often that they rather nauscate, than please, and so, instead of being affected, naturally runs into, even in conversation, and of which we are not without examples, in our old and best writers for the comic stage. But it is not wonderful that those critics, who take offence at English epic poems in rbyme, because the Greek and Latin only observed quantity, should require English comedies to be written in profe, though the Greek and Latin comedies were composed in verse. For the ill application of examples, and the neglect of them, may be well enough expected from the same men, since it does not appear that their judgment was employed, or the reason of the thing attended to, in either instance.

And thus much for the idea of Universal Poetry. It is the art of treating any subject in such a way as is found most delightful to us; that is, in an ornamented and numerous style—in the way of fiction—and in verse. Whatever deserves the name of poem must unite these three properties; only in different degrees of each, according to its nature. For the art of every kind of poetry

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poetry is only this general art so modified as the nature of each, that is, its more immediate and subordinate end, may re-

spectively require.

We are now, then, at the well-head of the poetic art; and they who drink deeply of this fpring, will be best qualified to perform the rest. But all heads are not equal to these copious draughts; and, besides, I hear the sober reader admonishing me long fince -

Lufifti fatis atque BIBISTI; Tempus abire tibi eft, ne POTUM LARGIUS AEQUO Rideat, et pulset lasciva decentius AETAS.

THURCASTON, MDCCLXV.

Vol. II.

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poetry is only this general art to re-diffied as the neuron of each, that is, its more time mediano and fubordinare end, may re-Section of the Variages, why then I

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DISSERTATION

THE PROVINCES OF THE DRAMA.

TN the former Essay, I gave an idea, or 1 flight sketch, of Universal Poetry. In this, I attempt to deduce the laws of one of its kinds, the Dramatic, under all its forms. And I engage in this task, the rather, because, though much has been said on the fubject of the drama, writers feem not to have taken sufficient pains to distinguish, with exactness, its feveral species.

I deduce the laws of this poem, as I did those of poetry at large, from the confideration of its end: not the general end of poetry, which alone was proper to be considered in the former case, but the proximate end of this kind. For from these ends, in fubordination to that, which governs the genus, or which all poetry, as

M 2 fuch,

fuch, defigns and profecutes, are the peculiar rules and maxims of each species to be derived.

THE PURPOSE OF THE DRAMA is, universally, "to represent human life in the "way of astion." But as such representation is made for separate and distinct ends, it is, further, distinguished into different species, which we know by the names of Tragedy, Comedy, and Farce.

By TRAGEDY, then, I mean that species of dramatic representation, whose end is to excite the passions of PITY and TERROR, and perhaps some others, nearly allied to them."

By Comedy that, which proposeth, for the ends of its representation, "the sensation of pleasure arising from a view of the truth of CHARACTERS, more especially their specific differences."

By FARCE I understand that species of the drama, "whose sole aim and tendency is to excite LAUGHTER."

The idea of these three species being then proposed, let us now see, what conclusions may be drawn from it. And chiefly in respect

respect of Tragedy and Comedy, which are most important. For as to what concerns the province of Farce, this will be easily understood, when the character of the other two is once fettled. it miller to allet ent

to interest us. Thus our for on the bear Book a di shaCH A Pa Li To sharing to

ON THE PROVINCES OF TRAGEDY AND COMEDY.

on the other hand, we is one-

FROM the idea of these two species, as given above, the following conclusions, about the natures of each are immediately deducibles your all and we

I. If the proper end of TRAGEDY be to affett, it follows, " that actions, not chaof racters, are the chief object of its reprefentations." For that which offets us most in the view of human life is the obfervation of those fignal circumstances of felicity or diffress, which occur in the fortunes of men. But felicity and diffress, as the great critic takes notice, depend on action, καζά τὰς πράξεις, εὐδαίμονες, ή τενανίου. They are then the calamitous events, or fortunate iffues in human action, which ftir up the stronger affections, and agitate the M 3 heart

heart with Passion. The manners are not, indeed, to be neglected. But they become an inferior confideration in the views of the tragic poet, and are exhibited only for the fake of making the action more proper to interest us. Thus our joy on the bappy eatastrophe of the fable, depends, in a good degree, on the virtuous character of the agent; as, on the other hand, we fympathize more strongly with him, on a diftrefsful iffue. The manners of the several persons in the drama must, also, be signified, that the action, which in many cases will be determined by them, may appear to be earried on with truth and probability. Hence every thing passing before us, as we are accustomed to see it in real life, we enter more warmly into their interests, as forgetting, that we are attentive to a filtitious fcene. And, besides, from knowing the perfonal good or ill qualities of the agents, we learn to anticipate their future felicity or misery, which gives increase to the passion in either case. Our acquaintance with IAGO's close villainy makes us tremble for Othello and Desdemona beforehand: and HAMLET'S

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HAMLET'S filial piety and intrepid daring occasion the audience secretly to exult in the expectation of some successful vengeance to be inflicted on the incestuous murderers.

2. For the same reason as tragedy takes for its object the actions of men, it, also, prefers, or rather confines itself to, such actions, as are most important. Which is only faying, that as it intends to interest, it, of course, chuses the representation of those. events, which are most interesting.

And this shews the defect of modern tragedy, in turning fo constantly as it does, on love subjects; the effect of this practice is, that, excepting only the rank of the actors (which indeed, as will be feen prefently, is of confiderable importance), the rest is below the dignity of this drama. For the action, when stripped of its accidental ornaments and reduced to the effential fall, is nothing more than what might as well have passed in a cottage, as a king's palace. The Greek poets should be our guides here, who take the very grandest events in their ftory to ennoble their trage-MA

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dy. Whence it comes to pass that the action, having an effential dignity, is always interesting, and by the simplest management of the poet becomes in a supreme

degree, pathetic.

3. On the fame account, the persons, whose actions Tragedy would exhibit to us, must be of principal rank and dignity. For the actions of these are, both in themfelves and in their consequences, most fitted to excite passion. The distresses of private and inferior persons will, no doubt, affest us greatly; and we may give the name of tragedies, if we please, to dramatic reprefentations of them: as, in fact, we have feveral applauded pieces of this kind. Nay. it may feem, that the fortunes of private men, as more nearly refembling those of the generality, should be most affecting. But this circumftance in no degree makes amends for the lofs of other and much greater advantages. For, whatever be the unbappy incidents in the story of private men, it is certain, they must take faster hold of the imagination, and, of course, impress the heart more forcibly, when related

lated of the higher characters in life.

Τῶν γάρ μεγάλων άξισπενθείς Φήμαι μάλλον καθέχεσιν.

EURIP. HIPP. 1484.

Kings, Heroes, Statesmen, and other perfons of great and public authority, influence by their ill-fortune the whole community, to which they belong. The attention is rouzed, and all our faculties take an alarm. at the apprehension of such extensive and important wretchedness. And, besides, if we regard the event itself, without an eye to its effects, there is still the widest difference between the two cases. Those ideas of awe and veneration, which opinion throws round the persons of princes, make us esteem the very same event in their fortunes, as more august and emphatical, than in the fortunes of private men. In the one, it is ordinary and familiar to our conceptions; it is fingular and furprizing, In the other. The fall of a cottage, by the accidents of time and weather, is almost unheeded; while the ruin of a tower, which the neighbourhood hath gazed at, for ages,

with admiration, strikes all observers with concern. So that, if we chuse to continue the absurdity, taken notice of in the last article, of planning unimportant action in our tragedy, we should, at least, take care to give it this foreign and extrinsic importance of great actors: Yet our passion for the familiar goes fo far, that we have tragedies, not only of private action, but of private persons; and so have well nigh annihilated the noblest of the two dramas amongst us. On the whole it appears, that as the proper object of tragedy is action, so it is important action, and therefore more especially the action of great and illustrious men. Each of these conclusions is the direct consequence of our idea of its end.

The reverse of all this holds true of comedy. For,

1. Comedy, by the very terms of the definition, is conversant about characters. And, if we observe, that which creates the pleasure we find in contemplating the lives of men, considered as distinct from the interest we take in their fortunes, is the contemplation

templation of their manners and humours. Their actions, when they are not of that fort, which feizes our admiration, or catches the affections, are no otherwise considered by us, than as they are fensible indications of the internal fentiment and disposition. Our intimate consciousness of the several turns and windings of our nature, makes us attend to these pictures of human life with an incredible curiofity. And herein the proper entertainment, which comic reprefentation, as fuch, administers to the mind. confifts. By turning the thought on event and action, this entertainment is proportionably lessened; that is, the end of comedy is less perfectly attained [d].

[d] Aristotle was of the same mind, as appears from his definition of comedy, which, fays he, is MIMHEIE DATAOTEPON. [x. f.] that is, the imitation of characters, whatever be the distinct meaning of the term pauléripos. It is true, this critic, in his account of the origin of tragedy and comedy, makes them both the imitations of ACTIONS. C: wir Courotegos ΤΑΣ ΚΑΛΑΣ ἰμιμείο ΠΡΑΒΕΙΣ, οί δι εὐτελίσεροι ΤΑΣ The Outher. [x. 8.] Yet, even here, the expression is fo put, as if he had been conscious that persons, not actions, were the direct object of comedy. And the quotation, now alledged from another place, where Bur

But here, again, though action be not the main object of comedy, yet it is not to be neglected, any more than character in tragedy, but comes in as an useful acceffary, or affiftant to it. For the manners of men only shew themselves, or shew themfelves most usually, in action. It is this, which fetches out the latent strokes of charafter, and renders the inward temper and disposition the object of sense. Probable circumstances are then imagined, and a certain train of action contrived, to evidence the internal qualities. There is no other, or no probable way, but this, of bringing us acquainted with them. Again; by engaging his characters in a course of action and the pursuit of some end, the comic poet leaves them to express themselves undisguisedly, and without design; in which the effence of bumour confifts.

Add to this, that when the fable is so contrived as to attach the mind, we very naturally fancy ourselves present at a course of living action. And this illusion quickens

a definition is given more in form, shews, that this was, in effect, his sentiment.

our attention to the characters, which no longer appear to us creatures of the poet's fiction, but actors in real life.

These observations concerning the moderated use of action in comedy, instruct us what to think " of those intricate Spanish " plots, which have been in use, and have " taken both with us and fome French writers for the stage. The truth is. " they have hindered very much the main " end of comedy. For when these un-" natural plots are used, the mind is not " only entirely drawn off from the cha-" racters by those surprizing turns and re-44 volutions; but characters have no oppor-" tunity even of being called out and dif-" playing themselves. For the actors of all " characters succeed and are embarrassed " alike, when the instruments for carrying " on designs are only perplexed apartments, " dark entries, disguised babits, and ladders " of ropes. The comic plot is, and must, " indeed, be carried on by deceipt. The " Spanish scene does it by deceiving the " man through his senses: Terence and Mo-" liere, by deceiving him through his passions es and

" and affections. This is the right method:

" for the character is not called out under

" the first species of deceipt: under the

of fecond, the character does all."

2. As character, not action, is the object of comedy; fo the characters it paints must not be of fingular and illustrious note, either for their virtues or vices. The reason is. that fuch characters take too fast hold of the affections, and so call off the mind from adverting to the truth of the manners; that is, from receiving the pleasure, which this poem intends. Our sense of imitation is that to which the comic poet addresses himself; but such pictures of eminent worth or villainy seize upon the moral sense; and by raifing the strong correspondent passions of admiration and abborrence, turn us afide from contemplating the imitation itself. And.

3. For a like cause, comedy confines its views to the characters of private and inferior persons. For the truth of character, which is the spring of bumour, being necessarily, as was observed, to be shewn through the medium of action, and the actions

excite the pathos, it follows of course, that these cannot, with propriety, be made the actors in comedy. Persons of high and public life, if they are drawn agreeably to our accustomed ideas of them, must be employed in such a course of action, as arrests the attention, or interests the passions; and either way it diverts the mind from observing the truth of manners, that is, it prevents the attainment of the specific end, which comedy designs.

And if the reason, here given, be sufficient to exclude the bigber characters in life from this drama, even where the representation is intended to be serious, we shall find it still more improper to expose them in any pleasant or ridiculous light. It is true, the sollies and soibles of the great will apparently take an easier ridicule by representation, than those of their inferiors. And this it was, which missed the celebrated P. Cornellle into the opinion, that the actions of the great, and even of kings themselves, provided they be of the ridiculous kind, are as sit objects of comedy, as

any other. But he did not reflect, that the actions of the great being usually such, as interest the intire community, at least scarcely any other falling beneath vulgar notice; and the higher characters being rarely feen or contemplated by the people but with reverence, hence it is, that in fact, the representation of bigb life cannot, without offence to probability, be made ridiculous, or consequently be admitted into comedy under this view. And therefore PLAUTUS. when he thought fit to introduce these reverend personages on the comic stage in his AMPHITRUO, though he employed them in no very ferious matters, was yet obliged to apologize for this impropriety in calling his play a Tragi-comedy. What he favs upon the occasion, though delivered with an air of pleasantry, is, according to the laws of just criticism:

Faciam ut commissa set TRAGICO-COMOEDIA.

Nam me perpetuo facere, ut set Comoedia,

REGES QUO VENIANT ET DII, non par arbitror.

Quid igitur? quoniam hic SERVOS QUOQUE

PARTES HABET.

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Faciam sit, proinde ut dixi, TRAGICO-COMEDIA.
PROL. IN AMPHIT.
And

And now, taking the idea of the two dramas, as here opened, along with us, we shall be able to give an account of feveral attributes, common to both, or which further characterize each of them. And,

- 1. A plot will be required in both. For the end of tragedy being to excite the affections by action; and the end of comedy, to manifest the truth of character through it; an artful constitution of the Fable is required to do justice both to the one and the other. It ferves to bring out the pathos, and to produce bumour. And thus the general form or structure of the two dramas will be one and the fame.
- 2. More particularly, an unity and even simplicity in the conduct of the fable [e] is a
- [e] The neglect of this is one of the greatest defects in the modern drama; which in nothing falls fo much short of the perfection of the Greek scene as in this want of fimplicity in the construction of its fable. The good fense of the author of the History of the Italian Theatre (who, though a mere player, appears to have had juster notions of the drama, than the generality of even professed critics) was fensibly struck with this difference in tragedy. " Quant a "I'unité d'action," fays he, " je trouve un grande dif-" ference entre les tragedies Grecques et les trage-VOL. II. perfection

perfection in each. For the course of the affections is diverted and weakened by the intervention of what we call a double plot; and even by a multiplicity of subordinate events, though tending to a common end; and of persons, though all of them, some way, concerned in promoting it. The like confideration shews the observance of this rule to be effential to just comedy. For when the attention is split on so many interfering objects, we are not at leifure to obferve, nor do we fo fully enter into, the truth of representation in any of them; the sense of bumour, as of the pathos, depending very much on the continued and undiverted operation of its object upon us.

3. The two dramas agree, also, in this circumstance; that the manners of the perfons exhibited should be imperfect. An absolutely good, or an absolutely bad, cha-

[&]quot;dies Françoises; j'apperçois toûjours aisement l'action des tragedies Grecques, et je ne la perds point de vûe; mais dans les tragedies Françoises, j'avoüe, que j'ai souvent bien de la peine à demêler l'action des episodes, dont elle est chargée." [Hist. du Theatre Italien, par Louis Riccosons, p. 293. Paris, 1728.]

racter is foreign to the purpose of each. And the reason is, I. That such a reprefentation is improbable. And probability constitutes, as we have feen, the very effence of comedy; and is the medium, through which tragedy is enabled most powerfully to affect us. 2. Such characters are improper to comedy, because, as was hinted above, they turn the attention aside from contemplating the expression of them, which we call bumour. And they are not less unsuited to tragedy, because though they make a forcible impression on the mind, yet, as Aristotle well observes, they do not produce the passions of pity and terror; that is, their impressions are not of the nature of that pathos, by which tragedy works its purpose. [x. 17].

There are, likewise, some peculiarities, which distinguish the two dramas. And

1. Though a plot be necessary to produce humour, as well as the pathos; yet a good plot is not so essential to comedy, as tragedy. For the pathos is the result of the entire assion, that is, of all the circumstances of the story taken together, and conspiring, by N 2 a pro-

a probable tendency, to a completion in the event. A failure in the just arrangement and disposition of the parts may, then, affect what is of the essence of this drama. On the contrary, bumour, though brought out by action, is not the effect of the whole, but may be distinctly evidenced in a fingle scene; as may be eminently illustrated in the two comedies of Fletcher, called The Little French Lawyer, and The Spanish Curate. The nice contexture of the fable. therefore, though it may give a pleasure of another kind, is not so immediately required to the production of that pleasure, which the nature of comedy demands. Much less is there occasion for that labour and ingenuity of contrivance, which is feen in the intricacy of the Spanish fable. Yet this is the tafte of our comedy. Our writers are all for plot and intrigue; and never appear fo well fatisfied with themselves as when, to speak in their own phrase, they contrive to have a great deal of business on their hands. Indeed they have reason. For it hides their inability to colour man-

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ners, which is the proper but much harder province of true comedy.

2. Tragedy succeeds best, when the subject is real; comedy, when it is seigned. What would this say, but that tragedy, turning our attention principally on the action represented, finds means to interest us more strongly on the persuasion of its being taken from actual life? While comedy, on the other hand, can neglect these scrupulous measures of probability, as intent only on exhibiting characters; for which purpose an invented story will serve much better. The reason is, real action does not ordinarily afford variety of incidents enough to shew the character fully: seigned action may.

And this difference, we may observe, explains the reason why tragedies are often formed on the most trite and vulgar subjects, whereas a new subject is generally demanded in comedy. The reality of the story being of so much consequence to interest the affections, the more known it is, the sitter for the poet's purpose. But a feigned story having been found more convenient

for the display of characters, it grew into a rule that the story should be always new. This disadvantage on the side of the comic poet is taken notice of in those verses of Antiphanes, or rather, as Casaubon conjectures, of Aristophanes, in a play of his, intitled, story. The reason of this difference now appears.

-Μακάριον εςιν ή τραγωδία
Ποίημα καλά σαντ'. Είγε σεράτον οἱ λόγοι
'Υπό τῶν Θεατῶν ἐσὶν ἐγνωρισμένοι,
Πρὶν καί τιν' εἴπεν, ὡς ὑπομνησαι μόνον
Δει τὸν σοιηλήν Οἰδίπεν γὰρ ἄν γε Φῶ,
Τὰ δ' ἄλλα σάντ' ἴσασιν. 'Ο σαλήρ Λάιος
Μήτηρ Ἰοκάςη, Θυγαλέρες, σαίδες, τίνες'
Τὶ σείσεθ' ἔτος, τί σεποίηκεν ''
'Ημῖν δὲ ταῦτ' ἐκ ἔςιν ἀλλὰ σάνλα δεί
Ευρείν ὀνόμαλα καινὰ, τὰ διωκημένα
Πρότερον, τὰ νῦν σαρούλα, τὴν καλαςροφήν,
Τὴν ἐσεολήν. ἀν ἐν τι τέτων σαραλίπη,
Χρέμης τις, ἢ Φείδων τις ἐκσυρίτλεται,
Πηλεί δὲ ταῦτ' ἔξεςι καὶ Τεύκρω σοιείν.

One fees, then, the reason why Tragedy prefers real subjects, and even old ones; and,

and, on the contrary, why comedy delights in feigned subjects, and new.

The fame genius in the two dramas is observable, in their draught of characters. Comedy makes all its Characters general; Tragedy, particular. The Avare of Moliere is not so properly the picture of a covetous man, as of covetousness itself. Racine's Nero, on the other hand, is not a picture of cruelty, but of a cruel man.

Yet here it will be proper to guard against two mistakes, which the principles now delivered may be thought to countenance.

The first is with regard to tragic characters, which I fay are particular. My meaning is, they are more particular than those of comedy. That is, the end of tragedy does not require or permit the poet to draw together fo many of those characteristic circumstances which shew the manners, as Comedy. For, in the former of these dramas, no more of character is shewn, than what the course of the action necessarily calls forth. Whereas, all or most of the features, by which it is usually N 4 diftin-

distinguished, are sought out and industriously displayed in the latter.

The case is much the same as in portrait painting; where, if a great master be required to draw a particular face, he gives the very lineaments he finds in it; yet so far resembling to what he observes of the same turn in other faces, as not to affect any minute circumstance of peculiarity. But if the same artist were to design a bead in general, he would assemble together all the customary traits and features, any where observable through the species, which should best express the idea, whatever it was, he had conceived in his own mind, and wanted to exhibit in the picture.

There is much the same difference between the two sorts of dramatic portraits. Whence it appears that in calling the tragic character particular, I suppose it only less representative of the kind than the comic; not that the draught of so much character as it is concerned to represent should not be general: the contrary of which I have afferted and explained at large elseweere [Notes on the A. P. 317.]

Next,

Next, I have faid, the characters of just comedy are general. And this I explain by the instance of the Avare of Moliere, which conforms more to the idea of avarice, than to that of the real avaricious man. But here again, the reader will not understand me, as saying this in the strict sense of the words. I even think Moliere saulty in the instance given; though, with some necessary explanation, it may well enough serve to express my meaning.

The view of the comic scene being to delineate characters, this end, I suppose, will be attained most perfectly, by making those characters as universal as possible. For thus the person shewn in the drama, being the representative of all characters of the same kind, furnishes in the highest degree the entertainment of bumour. then this univerfality must be such as agrees not to our idea of the possible effects of the character as conceived in the abstract, but to the actual exertion of its powers; which experience justifies, and common life allows. Moliere, and before him Plautus, had offended in this; that for a picture

picture of the avaritious man, they prefented us with a fantastic unpleasing draught of the passion of avarice. I call this a fantastic draught, because it hath no archetype in nature. And it is, farther, an unpleasing one; for, being the delineation of a simple passion unmixed, it wanted all those

Lights and shades, whose well-accorded strife Gives all the strength and colour of our life.

These lights and shades (as the poet finely calls the intermixture of many passions, which, with the leading or principal one, form the human character) must be blended together in every picture of dramatic manners; because the avowed business of the drama is to image real life. Yet the draught of the leading passion must be as general as this strife in nature permits, in order to express the intended character more perfectly.

All which again is easily illustrated in the instance of painting. In portraits of character, as we may call those that give a picture of the manners, the artist, if he be of real ability, will not go to work on the possibility

pôssibility of an abstract idea. All he intends is, to flew that some one quality predominates: and this he images strongly, and by fuch fignatures as are most conspicuous in the operation of the leading paffion. And when he hath done this, we may, in common speech or in compliment, if we please, to his art, say of such a portrait that it images to us not 'the man, but the passion; just as the antients observed of the famous statue of Apollodorus by Silarion, that it expressed not the angry Apollodorous, but his passion of anger [f]. But by this must be understood only that he has well expressed the leading parts of the designed character. For the rest, he treats his fubjest as he would any other; that is, . he represents the concomitant affections, or confiders merely that general fymmetry and proportion which are expected in a human figure. And this is to copy nature, which affords no specimen of a man turned all into a fingle passion. No metamorphosis could be more strange or incredible.

[[]f] Non bominem ex are fecit, sed iracundiam. Plin. xxxiv. 8.

Yet portraits of this vicious taste are the admiration of common starers, who, if they find a picture of a miser for instance (as there is no commoner subject of moral portraits) in a collection, where every muscle is strained, and feature hardened into the expression of this idea, never fail to profess their wonder and approbation of it.—On this idea of excellence, Le Brun's book of the Passions must be said to contain a set of the justest moral portraits: And the Characters of Theophrastus might be recommended, in a dramatic view, as preserable to those of Terence.

The virtuosi in the fine arts would certainly laugh at the former of these judgments. But the latter, I suspect, will not be thought so extraordinary: at least if one may guess from the practice of some of our best comic writers, and the success which such plays have commonly met with. It were easy to instance in almost all plays of character. But if the reader would see the extravagance of building dramatic manners on abstract ideas, in its full light, he needs only turn to B. Jonson's Every man

out of bis bumour; which, under the name of a play of character, is in fact an unnatural, and, as the painters call it, bard delineation of a group of fimply existing passions, wholly chimerical, and unlike to any thing we observe in the commerce of real life. Yet this comedy has always had its admirers. And Randolph, in particular, was fo taken with the defign, that he feems to have formed his muse's looking-

glass in express imitation of it.

Shakespeare, we may observe, is in this, as in all the other more effential beauties of the drama, a perfect model. If the difcerning reader peruse attentively his comedies with this view, he will find his bestmarked characters discoursing, through a great deal of their parts, just like any other, and only expressing their essential and leading qualities occasionally, and as circumstances concur to give an easy exposition to them. This fingular excellence of his comedy, was the effect of his copying faithfully after nature, and of the force and vivacity of his genius, which made him attentive to what the progress of the scene succeffively ceffively presented to him: whilst imitation and inferior talents occasion little writers to wind themselves up into the habit of attending perpetually to their main view, and a solicitude to keep their favourite characters in constant play and agitation. Though, in this illiberal exercise of their wit, they may be said to use the persons of their drama as a certain facetious fort do their acquaintance, whom they urge and teize with their civilities, not to give them a reasonable share in the conversation, but to force them to play tricks for the diversion of the company.

I have been the longer on this argument, to prevent the reader's carrying what I say of the superiority of plays of character to plays of intrigue into an extreme; a mistake, into which some good writers have been unsuspectingly betrayed by the acknowledged truth of the general principle. It is so natural for men, on all occasions, to say out into extremes, that too much care cannot be had to retain them in a due medium. But to return from this digression to

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the confideration of the difference of the two dramas.

3. A fameness of character is not usually objected to in tragedy: in comedy, it would not be endured. The passion of avarice, to refume the instance given above, being the main object, we find nothing but a difgustful repetition in a fecond attempt to delineate that character. A particular cruel man, only engroffing our regard in Nero, when the train of events evidencing fuch cruelty is changed, we have all the novelty we look for, and can contemplate with pleasure the very same character, set forth by a different course of action, or displayed in some other person.

4. Comedy fucceeds best when the scene is laid at home, tragedy for the most part when abroad. "This appears at first " fight whimfical and capricious, but has " its foundation in nature. What we chief-" ly feek in comedy is a true image of life " and manners; but we are not easily "brought to think we have it given us, " when dreffed in foreign modes and fash-

"ions. And yet a good writer must fol-

" low

" low his scene, and observe decorum. On the contrary, it is the action in tragedy which most engages our attention. But to fit a domestic occurrence for the stage, we must take greater liberties with the

"we must take greater liberties with the action than a well-known story will al-

"low." [Pope's Works, vol. iv. p. 185.]

Other characters of the two dramas, as well peculiar, as common, which might be accounted for from the just notion of them, delivered above, I leave to the observation of the reader. For my intention is not to write a complete treatise on the drama, but briefly to lay down such principles, from whence its laws may be derived.

CHAP. II.

OF THE GENIUS OF COMEDY.

BUT it may not be amis to express myself a little more fully as to the genius of comedy; which, for want of passing through the hands of such a critic, as Aristotle has been less perfectly understood.

Its end is the production of bumour: or, which comes to the same thing, "of that "pleasure,

er pleasure, which the truth of representa-"tion affords, in the exhibition of the pri-" vate characters of life, more particularly " their Specific differences." I add this latter clause, because the principal pleasure we take in contemplating characters confifts in noting those differences. The general attributes of humanity, if represented ever fo truly, give us but a slender entertainment. They, of course, make a part of the drama; but we chiefly delight in a picture of those peculiar traits, which distinguish the species. Now these discriminating marks in the characters of men are not necessarily the causes of ridicule, or pleafantry of any kind; but accidentally, and according to the nature or quality of them. The vanity, and impertinent boafting of Thraso is the natural object of contempt, and, when truly and forcibly expressed in his own character, provokes ridicule. The easy humanity of Mitio, which is the leading part of his character, is the object of approbation; and, when shewn in his own conduct, excites a pleasure, in common with all just expression of the manners, Vol. II.

but of a ferious nature, as being joined with the fentiment of esteem.

But now as most men find a greater pleasure in gratifying the passion of contempt, than the calm instinct of approbation, and fince perhaps the constitution of human life is fuch, as affords more exercife for the one than the other, hence it hath come to pass, that the comic poet, who paints for the generality, and follows nature, chuses more commonly to select and describe those peculiarities in the human character, which, by their nature, excite pleasantry, than such as create a serious regard and esteem. Hence some persons have appropriated the name of comedies to those dramas, which chiefly aim at producing bumour, in the more proper sense of the word; under which view it means " fuch an expression or picture of what is odd, or inordinate in each character, as " gives us the fullest and strongest image of the original, and by the truth of the " representation exposes the ridicule of it." And it is certain, that comedy receives great advantage from representations of this

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this kind. Nay, it cannot well subsist without them. Yet it doth not exclude the other and more ferious entertainment, which, as it stands on the same foundation of truth of representation, I venture to include under the common term.

Further, there are two ways of evidencing the characteristic and predominant qualities of men, or, of producing humour, which require to be observed. The one is, when they are shewn in the perpetual course and tenor of the representation; that is, when the humour results from the general conduct of the person in the drama. and the discourse, which he holds in it. The other is, when, by an happy and lively stroke, the characteristic quality is laid open and exposed at once.

The first fort of bumour is that which we find in the antients, and especially Terence. The latter is almost peculiar to the moderns; who, in uniting these two species of bumour, have brought a vast improvement to the comic scene. The reason of this difference may perhaps have been the singular simplicity of the old writers, who

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were contented to take up with fuch fentiments or circumstances, as most naturally and readily occurred in the course of the drama: whereas the moderns have been ambitious to shew a more exquisite and studied investigation into the workings of human nature, and have fought out for those peculiarly striking lineaments, in the essence of character consists. On the same account, I suppose, it was that the antients had fewer characters in their plays, than the moderns, and those more general; that is, their dramatic writers were well fatisfied with picturing the most ufual personages, and in their most obvious lights. They did not, as the moderns (who, if they would aspire to the praise of novelty, were obliged to this route), cast about for less familiar characters; and the nicer and less observed peculiarities which distinguish each. Be it as it will, the observation is certain. Later dramatifts have apparently shewn a more accurate knowledge of human life: and, by opening these new and untryed veins of bumour, have exceedingly enriched the comedy of our times.

But.

But, though we are not to look for the two species of bumour, before-mentioned, in the same perfection on the simpler stages of Greece and Rome, as in our improved Theatres, yet the first of them was clearly seen and successfully practised by the antient comic masters; and there are not wanting in them some few examples even of the last. "The old man in the Mother-" in-Law says to his Son,

Tum tu igitur nibil adtulisti buc plus una sententia.

"This, as an excellent person observed to

" me, is true bumour. For his character,

"which was that of a lover of money,

" drew the observation naturally and forci-

" bly from him. His disappointment of a

" rich fuccession made him speak contempti-

"bly of a moral leffon, which rich and

" covetous men, in their best humours, have

" no high reverence for. And this too

" without design; which is important, and

" shews the distinction of what, in the more

" restrained sense of the word, we call bu-

"mour, from other modes of pleafantry.
"For had a young friend of the fon, an un-

" concerned spectator of the scene, made

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"the observation, it had then, in another's

"mouth, been wit, or a designed banter on the father's disappointment. As, on the

" other hand, when such characteristic qua-

" lities are exaggerated, and the expression

" of them itretched beyond truth, they be-

" come buffoonry, even in the person's own."

This is an instance of the second species of humour, under its idea of exciting ridicule. But it may, also, be employed with the utmost seriousness; as being only a method of expressing the truth of character in the most striking manner. This same old man in the Hecyra will furnish an example. Though a lover of money, he appears, in the main, of an honest and worthy nature, and to have born the truest affection to an amiable and favourite fon. In the perplexity of the scene, which had arisen from the supposed misunderstanding between his son's wife and his own, he proposes, as an expedient to end all differences, to retire with his wife into the country. And to enforce this proposal to the young man, who had his reasons for being against it, he adds,

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odiosa baec est aetas adolescentulis: Emedio aequum excedere est: postremò nos jam fabula Sumus, Pamphile, senex atque anus.

There is nothing, I suppose, in these words, which provokes a smile. Yet the bumour is strong, as before. In his folicitude to promote his fon's fatisfaction, he lets fall a fentiment truly characteristic, and which old men usually take great pains to conceal; I mean, his acknowledgment of that suspicious fear of contempt, which is natural to old age. So true a picture of life, in the reprefentation of this weakness, might, in other circumstances, have created some pleasantry; but the occasion, which forced it from him, discovering, at the same time, the amiable disposition of the speaker, covers the ridicule of it, or more properly converts it into an object of our esteem.

We have here, then, a kind of intermediate species of bumour betwixt the ridiculous and the grave; and may perceive how insensibly the one becomes the other, by the accidental mixture of a virtuous quality, attracting esteem. Which may serve to reconcile the reader to the appli-

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cation of this term even to such expression of the manners, as is perfectly serious; that is, where the quality represented is entirely, and without the least touch of attending ridicule, the object of moral approbation to the mind. As in that samous asserted in the Self-tormentor:

Homo sum : humani nibil à me alienum puto.

This is a strong expression of character; and, coming unaffectedly from him in answer to the cutting reproof of his friend,

Chreme, tantumne ab re tuâ'st otî tibi Aliena ut cures; ea quae nihil ad te adtinent?

hath the effence of true bumour, that is, is a lively picture of the manners without defign.

Yet in this instance, which hath not been observed, the bumour, though of a serious cast, is heightened by a mixture of fatire. For we are not to take this, as hath constantly been done, for a sentiment of pure humanity and the natural ebullition of benevolence. We may observe in it a designed stroke of satirical resentment.

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The Self-tormentor, as we faw, had ridiculed Chremes' curiosity by a severe reproof. Chremes, to be even with him, reslects upon the inhumanity of his temper. "You," says he, "seem such a foe to humanity, that you spare it not in yourself; I, on the other hand, am affected, when I see it suffer in another."

Whence we learn, that, though all which is requisite to constitute comic humour, be a just expression of character without design, yet such expression is felt more sensibly, when it is further enlivened by ridicule, or quickened by the poignancy of satire.

From the account of comedy, here given, it may appear, that the idea of this drama is much enlarged beyond what it was in Aristotle's time; who defines it to be, an imitation of light and trivial actions, provoking ridicule. His notion was taken from the state and practice of the Athenian stage; that is, from the old or middle comedy, which answers to this description. The great revolution, which the introduction of the new comedy made in the drama, did not happen till afterwards. This proposed

proposed for its object, in general, the actions and characters of ordinary life; which are not, of necessity, ridiculous, but, as appears to every observer, of a mixt kind, ferious, as well as ludicrous, and, within their proper sphere of influence, not unfrequently, even important. This kind of imitation, therefore, now admits the ferious; and its fcenes, even without the least mixture of pleasantry, are entirely comic. Though the common run of laughers in our theatre are fo little aware of the extension of this province, that I should scarcely have hazarded the observation, but for the authority of Terence; who hath confessedly very little of the pleasant in his drama. Nay, one of the most admired of his comedies hath the gravity, and, in some places. almost the solemnity of tragedy itself. But this idea of comedy is not peculiar to the more polite and liberal antients. Some of the best modern comedies are fashioned in agreement to it. And an instance or two. which I am going to produce from the stage of simple nature, may feem to shew it the plain fuggestion of common sense.

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"The Amautas (fays the author of the " Royal Commentaries of Peru), who were " men of the best ingenuity amongst them, " invented Comedies and Tragedies; "which, on their folemn festivals, they re-" presented before the King and the Lords " of his court. The plot or argument of " their tragedies was, to represent their " military exploits, and the triumphs, victo-" ries, and beroic actions, of their renowned " men. And the subject or design of their " comedies was, to demonstrate the man-" ner of good busbandry in cultivating and " manuring their fields, and to shew the " management of domestic affairs, with other " familiar matters. These plays, continues " he, were not made up of obscene and "dishonest farces, but such as were of ce serious entertainment, composed of grave " and acute sentences, &c."

Two things are observable in this brief account of the Peruvian drama. First, that its species had respect to the very different objects of the bigber or lower stations. For the great and powerful were occupied in war: and agriculture was the chief employment of private and ordinary life. And, in this distinction, these Indian perfectly agreed with the old Roman poets; whose praintextata and togata shew, that they had precisely the same ideas of the drama. Secondly, we do not learn only, what difference there was betwixt their tragedy and comedy, but we are also told, what difference there was not. It was not, that one was serious, and the other pleasant. For we find it expressly afferted of both, that they were of grave and serious entertainment.

And this last will explain a similar obfervation on the Chinese, who, as P. DE PREMERE acquaints us, make no distinction betwirt tragedies and comedies. That is, no distinction, but what the different subjects of each make necessary. They do not, as our European dramas, differ in this, that the one is intended to make us weep, and the other to make us laugh.

These are full and precise testimonies. For I lay no stress on what the Historian of Peru tells us, that there were no obsceni-

ties in their comedy, nor on what an encomiast of China pretends, that there is not so much as an obscene word in all their language [g]: as being sensible, that though indeed these must needs be considerable abatements to the humour of their comic scenes, yet, their ingenuity might possibly find means to remedy these defects by the invention and dextrous application of the double entendre, which, on our stage, is found to supply the place of rank obscenity, and, indeed, to do its office of exciting laughter almost as well.

But, as I said, there is no occasion for this argument. We may venture, without the help of it, to join these authorities to that of Terence; which, together, enable us to conclude very fully, in opposition to

[[]g] P. ALVAREZ SEMEDO, speaking of their poetry, says, "Le plus grand advantage et la plus grande utilité qu'en ont tiré les Chanois, est cette grande modessie et retenuë incomparable, qui se voit en leurs ecrits, n'ayant pas meme une lettre en tons leurs livres, ni en toutes leurs ecritures, pour extons leurs livres, ni en toutes leurs ecritures, pour extons leurs les parties bonteuses de la nature." [Hist. Univ. de la Chine, p. 82. à Lyon 1667. 4.]

the general fentiment, that ridicule is not of the effence of comedy [b].

But, because the general practice of the Greek and Roman theatres, which strongly countenance the other opinion, may still be thought to outweigh this single Latin poet, together with all the eastern and western barbarians, that can be thrown into the balance, let me go one step further, and, by explaining the rise and occasion of this practice, demonstrate, that, in the present case, their authority is, in fact, of no moment.

The form of the Greek, from whence the Roman and our drama is taken, though generally improved by reflexion and just criticism, yet, like so many other great inventions, was, in its original, the product of pure chance. Each of its species had sprung out of a chorus-song, which was asterwards incorporated into the legitimate drama, and sound essential to its true form. But reason, which saw to establish what was

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[[]b] LE RIDICULE EST CE QU'IL Y A DE PLUS ESSENTIEL A LA COMEDIE. [P. RAPIN, REFLEX. SUR LA POET. P. 154. PARIS 1684.]

right in this fortuitous conformation of the drama, did not equally succeed in detecting and separating what was wrong. For the occasion of this chorus-song, in their religious sessivities, was widely different: the business, at one time, being to express their gratitude, in celebrating the praises of their gods and heroes; at another, to indulge their mirth, in jesting and sporting among themselves. The character of their drama, which had its rife from hence [i], conformed exactly to the difference of these occasions. Tragedy, through all its

[ί] Οἱ μὶν σεμιότεροι τὰς καλὰς ἐμιμῦνο Φράξεις, καὶ τας των τοιθτων τύχας οι δε ευτελέςτεροι, τας των Φωύλων, ΠΡΩΤΟΝ ΨΟΓΟΥΣ ΠΟΙΟΥΝΤΕΣ, ΩΣΗΕΡ ΕΤΕΡΟΙ TMNOTE KAI EΓΚΩΜΙΑ. [DEP. ΠΟΙΗΤ. xd.] This is Aristotle's account of the origin of the different species of POETRY. They were occasioned, he fays, by the different and even opposite tempers and difpositions of men: those of a loftier spirit delighting in the encomiaftic poetry, while the humbler fort betoak themselves to fatire. But this, also, is the just account of the rife and character of the different species of the DRAMA. For they grew up, he tells us in this very chapter, from the DITHYRAMBIC, and PHALLIC fongs. And who were the men, who chaunted these but the **EEMNOTEPOI**, and ETTEAESTEPOI, beforementioned? And how were they employed in them,

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feveral successive stages of improvement, was serious and even solemn. And a gay or rather bussion spirit was the characteristic of comedy.

We see, then, the genius of these two poems was accidentally fixed in agreement to their respective originals; consequent writers contenting themselves to embellish and perfect, not change, the primary form. The practice of the antient stage is then of no further authority, than as it accords to just criticism. The solemn cast of their tragedy, indeed, bears the test, and is found to be suitable to its real nature. The same does not appear of the burlesque form of comedy; no reason having been given, why it must, of necessity, have the ridiculous for its object. Nay the effects of

but the former, in hymning the praises of Bacchus; the latter, in dealing about obscene jokes and taunting investives on each other? So that the characters of the men, and their subjects, being exactly the same in both, what is said of the one is equally applicable to the other. It was proper to observe this; or the reader might, perhaps, object to the use made of this passage, here, as well as above, where it is brought to illustrate Aristotle's notion of the natures of the tragic and comic poetry.

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improved criticism on the later Greek comedy give a prefumption of the direct contrary. For, in proportion to the gradual refinement of this species in the hands of its greatest masters, the buffoon cast of the comic drama was infenfibly dropt, and even grew into a feverity, which departed at length very widely from the original idea. The admirable scholar of THEO-PHRASTUS, who had been tutored in the exact study of human life, faw so much of the genuine character of true comedy, that he cleanfed it, at once, from the greater part of those buffoonries, which had, till his time, defiled its nature. His great imitator, Terence, went still further; and, whether impelled by his native humour, or determined by his truer tafte, mixed fo little of the ridiculous in his comedy, as plainly shews, it might, in his opinion, subfift entirely without it. His practice indeed, and the theory, here delivered, nearly meet. And the conclusion is, that comedy, which is the image of private life, may take either character of pleasant or serious, as it chances, or even unite them into one piece; Vol. II. but

but that the former is by no means more effential to its constitution, than the latter.

I foresee but one objection, that can be made to this theory; which has, in effect, been obviated already. " It may be faid, " that, if this account of comedy be just, it " would follow, that it might, with equal " propriety, admit the gravest and most " affecting events, which inferior life fur-"nishes, as the lightest. Whereas it is "notorious, that distresses of a deep and " folemn nature, though faithfully copied " from the fortunes of private men, would " never be endured, under the name of " comedy, on the stage. Nay, such repre-" fentations would rather pass, in the pub-" lic judgment, for legitimate tragedies; of " which kind, we have, indeed, some exam-" ples in our language."

Two things are miltaken in this objection. First, it supposes, that deep diftreffes of every kind are inconfiftent with comedy; the contrary of which may be learnt from the Self-Tormentor of Terence. Next, it infinuates, that, if deep diffresses of any kind may be admitted Il delinto

into comedy, the deepest may. Which is equally erroneous. For, the manners being the proper object of comedy, the distress must not exceed a certain degree of feverity, left it draw off the mind from them, and confine it to the action only: as would be the case of murder, adultery, and other atrocious crimes, infesting private, as well as public, life, were they to be represented, in all their horrors, on the stage. And though some of these, as adultery, have been brought, of late, into the comic scene; yet it was not till it had loft the atrocity of its nature, and was made the subject of mirth and pleasantry to the fashionable world. But for this happy disposition of the times, comedy, as managed by fome of our writers, had lost its nature, and become And, yet, considered as tragic, fuch representations of low life had been improper. Because, where the intent is to affect, the subject is with more advantage taken from bigh life, all the circumstances being, there, more peculiarly adapted to answer that end.

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The folution then of the difficulty is, in one word, this. All distresses are not improper in comedy; but such only as attach the mind to the fable, in neglect of the manners, which are its chief object. On the other hand, all distresses are not proper in tragedy; but such only as are of force to interest the mind in the assion, preferably to the observation of the manners; which can only be done, or is done most effectually, when the distressul event, represented, is taken from public life. So that the distresses, spoken of, are equally unsuited to what the natures both of comedy and tragedy, respectively, demand.

CHAP. III.

OF M. DE FONTENELLE'S NOTION OF COMEDY.

Notwithstanding the pains I have taken, in the preceding chapters, to establish my theory of the comic drama, I find myself obliged to support it still further against the authority of a very eminent modern critic. M. de Fontenelle hath just now published two volumes of plays, among

among which are some comedies of a very singular character. They are not only in a high degree pathetic; but the scene of them is laid in antiquity; and great personages, such as Kings, Princesses, &c. are of the drama. He hath besides endeavoured to justify this extraordinary species of comedy by a very ingenious preface. It will therefore be necessary for me to examine this new system, and to obviate, as far as I can, the prejudices which the name of the author, and the intrinsic merit of the plays themselves, will occasion in favour of it.

His fystem, as explained in the preface to these comedies, is, briefly, this.

"The fubject of dramatic representa"tion, he observes, is some event or action
"of buman life, which can be considered
"only in two views, as being either that
"of public, or of private, persons. The
"end of such representation, continues he,
"is to please, which it doth, either by
"engaging the attention, or by moving
"the passions. The former is done by
"representing to us such events as are

P 3 " great,

" great, noble, or unexpelled: The latter by " fuch as are dreadful, pitiable, tender, or _ " pleasant. Of these several sources of " pleasure, he forms what he calls a dramatic " scale, the extremes of which he admits to " be altogether inconsistent; no art being " fufficient to bring together the grand, the " noble, or the terrible, into the same piece with the pleasant or ridiculous. The im-" pressions of these objects, he allows, are er perfectly opposed to each other. So-" that a tragedy, which takes for its subject " a noble, or terrible event, can by no " means admit the pleasant. And a co-" medy, which represents a pleasant action, " can never admit the terrible or noble. "But it is otherwise, he conceives, with the " intermediate species of this scale. The " fingular, the pitiable, the tender, which " fill up the interval betwixt the noble and " ridiculous, are equally confiftent with " tragedy and comedy. An uncommon " stroke of Fortune may as well befall a " peasant as a prince. And two lovers of " an inferior condition may have as lively a paffion for each other, and, when fome " unlucky

" unlucky event separates them, may de-" ferve our pity as much, as those of the " highest fortune. These situations then " are equally fuited to both dramas. They " will only be modified in each a little differ-" ently. From hence he concludes, that " there may be dramatic representations, " which are neither perfectly tragedies nor " perfectly comedies, but yet partake of the " nature of each, and that in different pro-" portions. There might be a species of " tragedy, for instance, which should unite " the tender with the noble in any degree, " or even subsist entirely by means of the " tender: And of comedy, which should " affociate the tender with the pleasant, or " even retain the tender throughout to a " certain degree to the entire exclusion of " the pleasant.

" As to his laying the scene of his co-" medy in Greece, he thinks this practice " fufficiently justified by the practice of the " French writers, who make no scruple to " lay their scene abroad, as in Spain or « England.

"Lastly, for what concerns the intro"duction of great personages into the co"mic drama, he observes, that by ordinary
"life, which he supposes the proper sub"ject of comedy, he understands as well
"that of Emperors and Princes, at times
"when they are only men, as of inferior
"persons. And he thinks it very evident
"that what passes in the ordinary life, so
"understood, of the greatest men, is truly
"comick [k]."

This is a simple exposition of M. de Fontenelle's idea of comedy, which, however, he hath set off with great elegance and a plausibility of illustration, such as writers of his class are never at a loss to give to any subject they would recommend.

Now though the principal aim of what I have to offer in confutation of this system be to combat the ingenious writer's notion of comedy; yet as the tenor of his preface leads him to deliver his sentiments also of tragedy, I shall not scruple intermixing, after his example, some reslexions on this latter drama.

[k] Prof. generale, tom. vii. Par. 1751.

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M. de Fontenelle fets out with observing. that the end of dramatic representation is to please. This end is very general. But he explains himself more precisely, by faying, "this pleasure is of two kinds, and confifts either in attaching the mind, or affeeting it." And this is not much amiss. But his further explanation of these terms is fuspicious. "The mind, fays he, is AT-" TACHED by the representation of what " is great, noble, fingular, or unexpected: It is AFFECTED by what is terrible, pitiable, " tender, or pleasant [1]." In this enumeration, he forgets the merely natural draught of the manners. Yet this is furely one of the means by which the drama is enabled to attach the spectator. With me, I confess, this is the first excellence of comedy. Nor could he mean to include this fource of pleasure under his second division. For though a lively picture of the manners may in some fort be faid to affect us, yet

certainly

^{[1] &}quot;On attache par le grand, par le noble, par "le rare, par l'imprévû. On émeut par le terrible ou affreux, par le pitoyable, par le tendre, par le plaisant ou ridicule." p. xiv.

certainly not as coming under the confideration of what is terrible, pitiable, tender, or ridiculous, but fimply of what is natural. The picture is pleasant or otherwise, as it chances; but is always the fource of entertainment to the observer. When the pleafantry is high, it takes indeed the passion of ridicule. In other instances, it can scarcely be faid to move, " emouvoir." Now this I take to be a very confiderable omission. For if the observation of character be a pleasure, which comedy is more particularly qualified to give, and which is not in any degree fo compatible with tragedy, does not this bid fair for being the proper end of comedy? Human life, he fays, which is the Subject of the drama, can only be regarded in two views, as either that of the great, and principally of kings, and that of private men. Now the attachments and emotions. he speaks of, are excited more powerfully and to more advantage in a representation of the former. That which is peculiar to a draught of ordinary life, or which is attained most perfectly by it, is the delight arising from a just exhibition of the manners. No,

he will fay. The pleafant belongs as peculiarly to a picture of common life, as the natural. Surely not. Common life distorted, or what we call farce, gives the entertainment of ridicule more perfectly than comedy. The only pleafure, which an expolition of ordinary life affords, diftinct from that we receive from a view of bigh life on the one hand, and ordinary life disfigured on the other, is the fatiffaction of contemplating the truth of charafter. However then this species of representation may be improved by incorporating other kinds of excellence with it, is not this, of pleafing by the truth of character, to be considered as the appropriate end of comedy?

I do not dispute the propriety of serious or even affecting comedies. I have already explained myself as to this point, and have shewn under what restrictions the weeping comedy, la larmoyante comedie, as the French call it, may be admitted on my plan. The main question is, whether there be any foundation in nature for two distinct and separate species only of the drama; or whether,

whether, as he pretends, a certain scale, which connects by an infensible communication the several modifications of dramatic representation, unites and incorporates the two species into one.

It is true the laws of the drama, as formed by Aristotle out of the Greek poets, can of themselves be no rule to us in this matter; because these poets had given no example of such intermediate species. This, for aught appears to the contrary, may be an extension of the province of the drama. The question then must be tried by the success of this new practice, compared with the general dictates of common sense.

For I perfectly agree with this judicious critic, that we have a right to inquire if, in what concerns the stage, we are not sometimes governed by established customs instead of rules; for rules they will not deferve to be esteemed, till they have undergone the rigid scrutiny of reason [m].

[[]m] " Que nous fommes en droit d'examiner fi, " en fait de Theatre, nous n'aurions pas quelquefois " des babitudes au lieu de regles, car les regles ne In

In respect of the Practice, then, it must be owned, there are many stories in private life capable of being worked up in fuch a manner as to move the passions strongly; and, on the contrary, many subjects taken from the great world capable of diverting the spectator by a pleasant picture of the manners. And lastly, it is also true, that both these ends may be affected together, in some degree, in either pièce. But here is the point of enquiry. Whether, if the end in view be to affest, this will not be accomplished BETTER by taking a subject from the public than private fortunes of men: Or, if the end be to please by the truth of character, whether we are not likely to perceive this pleasure more FULLY when the story is of private, rather than of public life? For, as Aristotle said finely on a like occasion, we are not to look for every fort of pleasure from tragedy [or comedy], but that which is peculiarly proper to each [n].

[&]quot; peuvent l'être qu'après avoir subi les rigueurs du tribunal de la raison." p. 37.

[[]n] Où masan di Çuliñ ndorn and renyudiac, and the

[&]quot; Human

"Human life, this writer fays, can be con-" fidered but as bigb or low;" and " a reor presentation of it can please only as it " attaches, or affects." I ask then, to which fort of life shall the dramatic poet confine himself, when he would endeavour to raise these affections or these attachments to the highest pitch. The answer is plain. For if the poet would excite the tender passions, they will rife higher of necessity, when awakened by noble subjects, than if called forth by fuch as are of ordinary and familiar notice. This is occasioned by what one may call a TRANSITION OF THE PASSIONS 5 that affection of the mind which is produced by the impression of great objects, being more easily convertible into the stronger degrees of pity and commiseration, than fuch as arises from a view of the concerns of common life. The more important the interest, the greater part our minds take in it, and the more susceptible are we of passion.

On the other hand, when the intended pleasure is to result from strong pictures of human nature, this will be felt more entirely, entirely, and with more fincerity, when we are at leisure to attend to them in the representation of inferior persons, than when the rank of the speaker, or dignity of the subject, is constantly drawing some part of our observation to itself. In a word, though mixed dramas may give us pleasure, yet the pleasure, in either kind, will be LESS in proportion to the mixture. And the end of each will be then attained most PERFECTLY when its character, according to the antient practice, is observed.

To consider then the writer's favourite position, that le pitoyable and le tendre are "common both to tragedy and comedy." The position, in general, is true. The difficulty is in fixing the degree, with which it ought to prevail in each. If passion predominates in a picture of private life, I call it a tragedy of private story, because it produces the end which tragedy designs. If bumour predominates in a draught of public life, I call it a comedy of public story, because it gives the pleasure of pure comedy. Let these then be two new species of the drama, if you please, and let new names

names be invented for them. Yet, were I a poet, I should certainly adhere to the old practice. That is, if I wanted to produce passion, I should think myself able to raise it highest on a great subject. And if I aimed to attach by bumour, I should depend on catching the whole attention of the spectator more successfully on a familiar subject.

But by a familiar subjett, this critic will fay, he means, as I do, a subject taken from ordinary life; and that the affairs of kings and princes may very properly come into comedy under this view. Besides the reason already produced against this innovation, I have this further exception to it. The business of comedy, he will allow, is in part at least to exhibit the manners. Now the princely or heroic comedy is fingularly improper for this end. If persons of so diffinguished a rank be the actors in comedy, propriety demands that they be shewn in conformity to their characters in real life. But now that very politeness, which reigns in the courts of princes and the houses of the great, prevents the manners from shewing themselves, at least with that distinctness and relief which we look for in dramatic characters. Inferior personages, acting with less reserve and caution, afford the
fittest occasion to the poet of expressing
their genuine tempers and dispositions.

Or, if a picture of the manners be expected
from the introduction of great persons, it
can be only in tragedy, where the importance of the interests, and the strong play
of the passions, strip them of their borrowed
disguises, and lay open their true characters.
So that the princely, or beroic, comedy, is
the least sitted, of any kind of drama, to
furnish this pleasure.

The antients appear to have had no doubt at all on the matter. The tragedy on low life, and comedy on high life, were refinements altogether unknown to them. What then hath occasioned this revolution of taste amongst us? Principally, I conceive,

these three things.

from a different state of government. In the free towns of Greece there was no room for that distinction of high and low comedy,

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which the moderns have introduced. And the reason was, the members of those communities were so nearly on a level, that any one was a representative of the rest. There was no standing subordination of royalty, nobility, and commonalty, as with us. Their way of ennobling their characters was by making them Generals, Ambassadors, Magistrates, &c. and then, in that public view, they were sit personages for tragedy. When stripped of these ensigns of authority, they became simple citizens.

Amongst us, persons of elevated rank make a separate order in the community, whose private lives however might, no doubt, be the subject of comic representation. Why then are not these sit personages for comedy? The reason has been given. They want dramatic manners. Or if they did not, their elevated and separate estate makes the generality conceive with such reverence of them, that it would shock their notions of high life to see them employed in a course of comic adventures. And of this M. de Fontenelle himself was sufficiently sensible. For speaking in another

other place of the importance which the tragic action receives from the dignity of its persons, he says, "When the actions are of fuch a kind as that, without lofing any " thing of their beauty, they might pals be-" tween inferior persons, the names of kings " and princes are nothing but a foreign " ornament which the poet gives to his " subject. Yet this ornament, foreign as it " may be, is necessary: so fated are we to be " always dazzled by titles [o]." Should he not have feen then, that this pageantry of titles, which is fo requisite to raise the dignity of the tragic drama, must for the same reason prevent the familiarity of the comic? The great themselves are, no doubt, in this, as other instances, above vulgar prejudices. But the dramatic poet writes for the people.

2. The tragedy on low life, I suspect, has been chiefly owing to our modern romances: which have brought the tender passion into great repute. It is the constant and almost sole object of le pitoyable and le tendre in our drama. Now the prevalency

[o] Reflex. fur la poef. p. 132.

of this passion, in all degrees, hath made it thought an indifferent matter, whether the story, that exemplishes it, be taken from low or high life. As it rages equally in both, the pathos, it was believed, would be just the same. And it is true, if tragedy confine itself to the display of this passion, the difference will be less sensible than in other instances. Because the concern terminates more directly in the tender pair themselves, and does not so necessarily extend itself to others. Yet to heighten this same pathos by the grand and important, would methinks be the means of affording a still higher pleasure.

which prevails to fuch a degree in all our dramas, comic as well as tragic, to the exclusion of every other interest, is, perhaps, best accounted for by this writer. As the matter is delicate, I chuse to give it in his own words: "On s'imagine naturellement, que les pièces Grecques & les nôtres ont été jugées au même tribunal, à celui d'un public asses egal dans les deux nations; mais cela n'est pas tout-a-fait vrai. Dans

" le tribunal d'Athenes, les femmes n'avoient " pas de voix, ou n'en avoient que trés " peu. Dans le tribunal de Paris, c'est " précisément le contraire; ici il est donc " question de plaire aux femmes, qui assuré-" ment aimeront mieux le pitoyable & le " tendre, que terrible et même le grand." He adds, " Et je ne crois pas au fond qu'elles " ayent grand tort." And what gallant man but would subscribe to this opinion?

On the whole, this attempt of M. de Fontenelle, to innovate in the province of comedy, puts one in mind of that he made, many years ago, in pastoral poetry. It is exactly the fame spirit which has governed this polite writer in both adventures. He was once for bringing courtiers in mafquerade into Arcadia. And now he would fet them unmasked on the comic stage. Here, at least, he thought they would be in place. But the fimplicity of pastoral dialogue would not fuffer the one; and the familiarity of comic action forbids the other. It must be confessed, however, he hath succeeded better in the example of his comedies, than his paftorals. And no wonder.

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For what we call the fashions and manners are confined to certain conditions of life, so that pastoral courtiers are an evident contradiction and absurdity. But the appetites and passions extending through all ranks, hence low tricks and low amours are thought to suit the minister and sharper alike. However it be, the fact is, that M. de Fontenelle hath succeeded best in his comedies. And as his theory is likely to gain more credit from the success of his practice than the force of his reasoning, I think it proper to close these remarks with an observation or two upon it.

There are, I observed, three things to be considered in his comedies, bis introduction of great personages, bis practice of laying the scene in antiquity, and bis pathos.

Now to see the impropriety of the first of these innovations, we need only observe with what art he endeavours to conceal it. His very dexterity in managing his comic heroes clearly shews the natural repugnance he felt in his own mind betwixt the representation of such characters, and even his own idea of the comic drama.

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The TYRANT is a strange title of a comedy. It required fingular address to familiarize this frightful personage to our conceptions. Which yet he hath tolerably well done, but by fuch expedients as confute his general theory. For to bring him down to the level of a comic character, he gives us to understand, that the Tyrant was an usurper, who from a very mean birth had forced his way into the tyranny. And to lower him still more, we find him reprefented, not only as odious to his people, but of a very contemptible character. He further makes him the tyrant only of a small Greek town; fo that he passes, with the modern reader, for little more than the Mayor of a corporation. There is also a plain illusion in making a fimple citizen demand his daughter in marriage. For under the cover of this word, which conveys the idea of a person in lower life, we think very little of the dignity of a free citizen of Corinth. Whence it appears that the poet felt the necessity of unkinging this tyrant as far as possible, before he could make a comic character of him.

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The case of his ABDOLONIME is still easier. It is true, the structure of the sable requires us to have an eye to royalty; but all the pride and pomp of the regal character is studiously kept out of sight. Besides, the affair of royalty does not commence till the action draws to a conclusion, the persons of the drama being all simple particulars, and even of the lowest sigure, through the entire course of it.

The King of Sidon is, further, a paltry fovereign, and a creature of Alexander. And the characters of the persons, which are indeed admirably touched, are purposely contrived to lessen our ideas of sove-

reignty.

The Lysianasse is a tragedy in form, of that kind which hath a happy catastrophe. The persons, subject, every thing so important, and attaches the mind so intirely to the event, that nothing interests more.

As to his laying the scene in antiquity, and especially in the free towns of Greece, I would recommend it as an admirable expedient to all those who are disposed to follow

follow him in this new province of heroic comedy. For amongst other advantages, it gives the writer an occasion to fill the courts of his princes with fimple citizens, which, as was observed, by no means anfwer to our ideas of nobility. But in any other view I cannot fay much for the practice. It is for obvious reasons highly inconvenient. Even this writer found it fo. when in one of his plays, the MACATE, he was obliged to break through the propriety of antient manners in order to adapt himself to the modern taste. His duel, as he himself fays, " a l'air bien François et " bien peu Grec." The reader, if he pleafes. may fee his apology for this transgression of decorum. Or, if there were no inconvenience of this fort, the representation of characters after the antique must, on many occasions, be cold and disgusting. At least none but professed scholars can be taken with it.

Nor is the usage of the Latin writers any precedent. For, besides that Horace, we know, condemned it as suitable only to the infancy of their comic poetry, the man-

ners,

ners, laws, reilgion of the Greeks were in the main so similar to their own, that the difference was hardly discernible. Or if it were otherwise in some points, the neighbourhood of this samous people and the intercourse the Romans had with them, would bring them perfectly acquainted with such difference. And this last reflexion shews how insufficient it was for the author to excuse his own practice from the authority of his countrymen; who, says he, "never scruple laying their scene in "Spain or England." Are the manners of antient Greece as familiar to a French pit, as those of these two countries?

Lastly, I have very little to object to the pathos of his comedy. When it is sub-fervient to the manners, as in the Testament and Abdolonime, I think it admirable. When it exceeds this degree, and takes the attention intirely, as in the Lysianasse, it gives a pleasure indeed, but not the pleasure appropriate to comedy. I regard it as a faint impersect species of tragedy. After all, I fear, the sender and pitiable in comedy, though it must

must afford the highest pleasure to sensible and elegant minds, is not perfectly fuited to the apprehensions of the generality. Are they susceptible of the soft and delicate emotions which the fine diffress in the Testament is intended to raise? Every one indeed is capable of being delighted through the passions; but they must be worked up, as in tragedy, to a greater height, before the generality can receive that delight from them. The same objection, it will be faid, holds against the finer strokes of character. Not, I think. with the same force. I doubt our sense of imitation, especially of the ridiculous, is quicker than our humanity. But I determine nothing. Both these pleasures are perfectly confiftent. And my idea of medy requires only that the pathos be kept in fubordination to the manners.

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CHAP. IV.

OF THE PROVINCE OF FARCE.

of COMEDY. If considered more accurately it is, further, of two kinds. And in confidering these we shall come at a just notion of the province of Farce. For this mirror of private life either, 1. reslects such qualities and characters, as are common to but man nature at large: or, 2. it represents the whims, extravagances, and caprices, which characterize the folly of particular persons or times.

Again, each of these is, surther, to be subdivided into two species. For 1. the representations of common nature may either be taken accurately, so as to reslect a faithful and exall image of their original; which alone is that I would call comedy, as best agreeing to the description which Cicero gives of it, when he terms it IMAGINEM VERITATIS. Or, they may be forced and overcharged above the simple and just proportions of nature; as when the

the excesses of a few are given for standing characters, when not the man is described, but the passion, or when, in the draught of the man, the leading feature is extended beyond measure: And in these cases the representation holds of the lower province of Farce. In like manner, 2. the other species, consisting in the representation of partial nature, either transcribes such characters as are peculiar to certain countries or times, of which our comedy is, in great measure, made up; or it presents the image of some real individual person; which was the distinguishing character of the old comedy properly so called.

Both these kinds evidently belong to FARCE: not only as failing in that general and universal imitation of nature, which is alone deserving the name of comedy, but, also, for this reason, that, being more directly written for the present purpose of discrediting certain characters or persons, it is found convenient to exaggerate their peculiarities and enlarge their features;

238 ON THE PROVINCES OF and fo, on a double account, they are to be referred to that class.

And thus the three forms of dramatic composition, the only ones which good sense acknowledges, are kept distinct: and the proper END and CHARACTER of each, clearly understood.

1. Tragedy and Comedy, by their lively but faithful representations, cannot fail to instruct. Such natural exhibitions of the human character, being fet before us in the clear mirror of the drama, must needs ferve to the highest moral uses, in awakening that inftinctive approbation, which we cannot withhold from virtue, or in provoking the not less necessary detestation of vice. But this, though it be their best use, is by no means their primary intention. Their proper and immediate end is, to PLEASE: the one, more especially by interesting the affections; the other, by a just and delicate imitation of real life. Farce, on the contrary, professes to entertain; but this, in order more effectually to ferve

ferve the interests of virtue and good sense. Its proper end and purpose (if we allow it to have any reasonable one) is, then, to INSTRUCT. Which the reader will understand me as faying, not of what we know by the name of farce on the modern stage (whose prime intention can hardly be thought even that low one, ascribed to it by Mr. Dryden, of entertaining citizens, country gentlemen, and Covent-Garden fops). but of the legitimate end of this drama; known to the Antients under the name of the old Comedy, but having neither name nor existence, properly speaking, among the Moderns. Of which we may fay, as Mr. Dryden did, but with less propriety, of Comedy, "That it is a sharp manner of " instruction for the vulgar, who are never " well amended, till they are more than fuf-" ficiently exposed." [Pref. to Trans. of Fresnoy, p. xix.]

2. Though tragedy and comedy respect the same general END, yet pursuing it by different means; hence it comes to pass, their CHARACTERS are wholly different.

For

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For tragedy, aiming at pleasure principally through the affections, whose flow must not be checked and interrupted by any counter impressions: and comedy, as we have seen, addressing itself principally to our natural sense of resemblance and imitation; it follows, that the ridiculous can never be affociated with tragedy, without destroying its nature, though with the serious comic it very well consists.

And here the practice coincides with the rule. All exact writers, though they conftantly mix grave and pleasant scenes together in the same comedy, yet never presume to do this in tragedy, and so keep the two species of tragedy and comedy themselves perfectly distinct. But,

3. It is quite otherwise with comedy and farce. These almost perpetually run into each other. And yet the reason of the thing demands as intire and perfect a separation in this case, as in the other. For the perfection of comedy lying in the accuracy and sidelity of universal representation, and farce professedly neglecting or rather purposely

posely transgressing the limits of common nature and just decorum, they clash entirely with each other. And comedy must so far fail of giving the pleasure, appropriate to its design, as it allies itself with farce; while farce, on the other hand, forfeits the use, it intends, of promoting popular ridicule, by restraining itself within the exact rules of Nature which Comedy observes.

But there is little occasion to guard against this latter abuse. The danger is all on the other side. And the passion for what is now called Farce, the shadow of the Old Comedy, has, in fact, possessed the modern poets to such a degree, that we have scarcely one example of a comedy without this gross mixture. If any are to be excepted from this censure in Moliere, they are his Misanthrope, and Tartusse; which are accordingly, by common allowance, the best of his large collection. In proportion as his other plays have less or more of this farcical turn, their true value hath been long since determined.

Of our own comedies, such of them, I mean, as are worthy of criticism, Ben Jon-Vol. II. R fon's

fon's Alchemist and Volpone bid the fairest for being written in this genuine unmixed manner. Yet, though their merits are very great, severe Criticism might find fomething to object even to these. The ALCHEMIST, some will think, is exaggerated throughout; and fo, at best, belongs to that species of comedy which we have before called particular and partial. At least, the extravagant pursuit, so strongly exposed in that play, hath now, of a long time, been forgotten; fo that we find it difficult to enter fully into the humour of this highly-wrought character. And, in general, we may remark of fuch characters, that they are a strong temptation to the writer to exceed the bounds of truth in his draught of them at first, and are further liable to an imperfect, and even unfair, sentence from the reader afterwards. For the welcome reception, which these pictures of prevailing local folly meet with on the stage, cannot but induce the poet, almost without design, to inflame the representation: and the want of archetypes, in a little time, makes it pass for immoderate.

derate, were it originally given with ever fo much discretion and justice. So that, whether the Alchemist be farcical or not, it will appear, at least, to have this note of Farce, "That the principal character is " exaggerated." But then this is all we must affirm. For, as to the subject of this Play's being a local folly, which feems to bring it directly under the denomination of Farce, it is but just to make a distinction. Had the end and purpose of the Play been to expose Alchemy, it had been liable to this objection. But this mode of local folly is employed as the means only of exposing another folly, extensive as our Nature, and coeval with it, namely Avarice. So that the subject has all the requisites of true Comedy. It is just otherwise, we may obferve, in the Devil's an Ass; which therefore properly falls under our censure. For there, the folly of the time, Projects and Monopolies, are brought in to be exposed as the end and purpose of the comedy.

On the whole, the Alchemist is a Comedy in just form, but a little Farcical in the extension of one of its characters.

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The VOLPONE is a subject so manifestly fitted for the entertainment of all times. that it stands in need of no vindication. Yet neither, I am afraid, is this Comedy, in all respects, a complete model. There are even some Incidents of a farcical invention: particularly, the Mountebank Scene, and Sir Politique's Tortoise, are in the taste of the old comedy; and without its rational purpose. Besides, the bumour of the dialogue is fometimes on the point of becoming inordinate, as may be feen in the pleafantry of Corbaccio's mistakes through deafness. and in other instances. And we shall not wonder, that the best of his plays are liable to some objections of this fort, if we attend to the character of the writer. For his nature was fevere and rigid; and this, in giving a strength and manliness, gave at times too an intemperance to his fatyr. His tafte for ridicule was strong, but indelicate: which made him not over-curious in the choice of his topics. And, laftly, his fyle in picturing characters, though masterly, was without that elegance of band which is required to correct and allay the force of

of fo bold a colouring. Thus, the biass of his nature leading him to Plautus, rather than Terence, for his model, it is not to be wondered, that his wit is too frequently caustic, his raillery coarse, and his humour excessive.

Some later writers for the stage have, no doubt, avoided these defects of the exactest of our old dramatists. But do they reach his excellencies? Posterity, I am afraid, will judge otherwise, whatever may be now thought of some more fashionable comedies. And, if they do not, neither the state of general manners, nor the turn of the public tafte, appears to be fuch as countenances the expectation of greater improvements. To those, who are not overfanguine in their hopes, our forefathers will perhaps be thought to have furnished (what in nature feem linked together) the fairest example of dramatic, as of real manners.

But here it will probably be faid, an affected zeal for the honour of our old poets has betrayed their unwary advocate into a concession which discredits his whole pains

on this subject. For to what purpose, may it be asked, this waste of dramatic criticism, when, by the allowance of the idle speculatift himfelf, his theory is likely to prove so unprofitable, at least, if it be not illfounded? The only part I can take in this nice conjuncture is, to screen myself behind the authority of a much abler critical theorift, who had once the misfortune to find himself in these unlucky circumstances, and has apologized for it. The objection is fairly urged by this fine writer; and, in fo profound and speculative an age as the prefent, I prefume to fuggest no other answer than he has thought fit to give to it. " Speculations of this fort, fays he, do not 44 bestow genius on those who have it not; they do not perhaps afford any great " affiftance to those who have; and most commonly the men of genius are even " incapable of being affifted by speculation. "To what use then do they serve? why, " to lead up to the first principles of beauty " fuch perfons as love reasoning, and are " fond of reducing, under the controul of of philosophy, subjects that appear the " most

"most independent of it, and which are generally thought abandoned to the caprice of taste [p]."

[p] "Ces fortes de speculations ne donnent point de genie à ceux qui en manquent; elles n'aident beaucoup ceux qui en ont: et le plus souvent même les gens de génie sont incapables d'être aidées par les speculations. A quoi donc sont-elles bonnes? A faire remonter jusqu'aux premieres idées du beau quelques gens qui aiment la raisonnement, et se plaisent à reduire sous l'empire de la philosophie les choses qui en paroissent le plus indépendantes, et que l'on croit communément abandonnées à la bizarrerie des goûts." M. DE FONTENELLE.

The END of the SECOND VOLUME.

